The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 4, 1916.

Summary of the News

The situation brought about by the President's note to Germany of April 18 has remained absolutely unchanged. In dispatches from Berlin and Washington expressions of hope for a satisfactory settlement have alternated with grave warnings against undue hopefulness, the fact being that none of the correspondents have had any legitimate grounds on which to base their surmises. Ambassador Gerard was summoned last week to confer with the Kaiser and Chancellor at Grand Headquarters and returned to Berlin on Tuesday. No word as to the result of the conference has been given out, but dispatches from Berlin of that day stated that the German reply might be expected "with little delay." Presumably it was to forestall any efforts of the German Government to obscure the issue that Secretary Lansing on April 26 made public the text of a memorandum issued by the United States Government on the question of armed merchant ships. The Government holds in effect that it is the obligation of the warship to determine absolutely before attacking whether a merchant vessel is armed for offence or defence.

The long-awaited British note in reply to American protests against Allied interference with neutral trade was made public by the State Department on April 25. In our editorial columns we allude to some of the salient features of the reply. Dispatches from Washington of April 27 stated that Mr. Lansing had addressed a further communication to the British Government requesting the release of the persons removed from the American steamship China. Sir Edward Grey's reply to Mr. Lansing's original protest was noted in our issue of April 20.

The insurrection in Ireland was definitely crushed by Sunday. At no time was there any doubt as to the issue. The revolt began on April 24, when the Sinn Feiners in Dublin, by a surprise attack, seized the Post Office, the City Hall, Liberty Hall, Stephen's Green, and many houses in Sackville Street. They cut the telegraph wires communicating with England and other parts of Ireland, but omitted to destroy telephonic communication. The authorities were able, therefore, to obtain troops from Curragh and from England, and by Wednesday of last week cordons were drawn around the city itself and around the rebel positions. Martial law was proclaimed for the whole of Ireland. On Saturday it was announced that the rebel leaders had agreed to unconditional surrender, and on Sunday a proclamation was issued by "Provisional President" Pearce calling on his followers to lay down their arms "in order to prevent the further slaughter of unarmed people." In Dublin more than a thousand rebels were made prisoners. The revolt had spread to only a few parts of the rest of the country, and there also it has been put down. The opinion of the majority of the Irish people was expressed by Mr. Redmond when he described the insurrection as "this attempted deadly blow at Home Rule."

Official announcement was made in London on Saturday of the surrender of the British army under the command of Major-Gen. Charles Townshend, which had been besieged in Kut-el-Amara since December 5, last year. The news was not unexpected, as the preceding day dispatches had told of the failure of an attempt to run a ship carrying provisions through the Turkish lines. The number of Gen. Townshend's force was given in the British official communication as "2,970 British troops of all ranks and services and some 6,000 Indian troops and their followers." Artillery and ammunition were destroyed before the surrender.

At Verdun German attacks have been continued, but with considerably less force. The general opinion in France is that the battle is over, and that assaults of ever-lessening intensity will be delivered until the normal condition of siege warfare is restored. Tuesday's bulletin told of a French offensive which had made considerable gains southeast of Fort Douaumont and west of the Meuse. There have been certain indications during the past week that the German attack may be shifted to the part of the line held by the British troops.

Submarines have been a good deal less active during the past week, only five vessels having been reported sunk, four British and one Norwegian. A few have been destroyed by mines. By this means two Dutch ships are supposed to have been sunk and two others damaged. The Dutch press betrays a good deal of impatience at recent injury to Holland's shipping, the *Vaderland* asserting that German submarines are now working without displaying numbers, and that submarine commanders "are raging like madmen." A German U-boat and a British E-boat have been officially reported destroyed during the week. The Fabre liner Patria, which arrived at New York on Monday, confirmed cabled reports that an attempt had been made to torpedo her in the Mediterranean on April 5.

The revolt in Ireland and the surrender at Kut-el-Amara are calculated to increase the difficulties of the Coalition Government, already harried over the question of universal compulsion. At the secret sessions of Parliament, held on April 18 and 19, Premier Asquith, after revealing details regarding the strength of the army, unfolded the recruiting scheme which represented the compromise agreed to by the Cabinet. According to this scheme, 50,000 men must be procured by May 27 and an additional 15,000 a week in every week thereafter until the total recruited shall reach 200,000. Failing this, the Government would ask powers to introduce a further measure of compulsion. Opposition in the House to the Government's proposals was seen, however, to be so strong that they were withdrawn, and on Tuesday Mr. Asquith informed the House of Commons of his intention to introduce a bill yesterday calling for general and immediate compulsion.

Official announcement was made on April 28 of the sinking by a mine in the Mediterranean of the British battleship Russell. Admiral Freemantle, the captain, and twenty-four officers and 676 men were saved. Those missing numbered 124.

The Administration suffered a severe defeat in the House on Monday, when the Clarke amendment to the Philippine bill, giving the islands complete independence in four years, was rejected by a vote of 213 to 165, thirty Democrats voting with the majority.

The resignation of Henry Morgenthau as Ambassador to Turkey was announced last week. Mr. Morgenthau expects to take an active part in Mr. Wilson's Presidential campaign.

No solution is reported of the awkward situation brought about by the seizure of von Igel's papers. Secretary Lansing has decided that Count von Bernstorff can have returned to him only those which he identifies as "official." The Ambassador refuses to identify them and is understood to demand their return as an Attaché's "belongings."

An agreement was ratified on Monday by which the threatened coal strike in Pennsylvania has been averted and which it is expected will raise the price of coal for the consumer by forty cents a ton. The agreement is on the basis of an eight-hour day and an increase in wages.

There is little news to record in regard to the Mexican situation. The usual rumors concerning Carranza's imminent fall and his differences with Gen. Obregon have been circulated and have elicited a specific denial from Gen. Obregon, published in the New York *Times* on Monday. Gen. Scott's report on his conference with Obregon was received by Secretary of War Baker on Sunday, but no statement concerning it has been given out. Through his representative in Washington, Señor Arredondo, Gen. Carranza on Monday again pressed the view of the de-facto Government that the American troops should be withdrawn as soon as possible, but it has been made known that the President has no present intention of acceding to the demand. Secretary Lansing is understood to have informed Señor Arredondo that the time was not yet ripe for formal discussion of the matter, and similar instructions are stated to have been sent to Gen. Scott.

As a result, no doubt, of severe censorship, very little news comes through from Greece. A dispatch of the Associated Press from Athens of April 23, relayed by way of Rome and Paris, April 28, spoke of "an amazing spread of sentiment" in favor of Venizelos throughout the country and "even in conservative Peloponnesus" and gave it as the opinion of neutral diplomatic observers that "unless an Allied offensive against Bulgaria relieves the tension by sweeping the Greeks into war with their ancient enemies, a political cataclysm in Greece is inevitable."

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Week

Dr. Dernburg's advice to his fellow-Germans, coming on top of Maximilian Harden's "If I Were Wilson," ought to have a powerful effect in preparing Germany for a settlement with the United States. Primarily, Dr. Dernburg feels himself compelled to admit that the Sussex was torpedoed contrary to assurances given by Berlin to the United States Government, and points out the strength of our position as it rests upon the Lusitania, Arabic, and Sussex cases. Should the German Government wish to do a handsome thing and ease the way for a settlement, it could begin its reply to Mr. Wilson by a frank acknowledgment that it was in error in maintaining that the Sussex was not sunk by one of its submarines. For the rest, Dr. Dernburg's plea is a wise demand for a quiet and calm consideration of the American problem from the point of view of the entire situation in which the Empire finds itself. However poor his opinion of the Americans, Dr. Dernburg knows from his stay here how vast are our resources and how greatly a break with the United States would encourage his country's enemies. Therefore, he is shrewd enough to suggest that neither national sensitiveness nor national "honor"—that convenient catchword of statesmen — should stand in the way of "certain concessions" to keep the United States out of the war. This is taking a long step forward in influencing German public opinion. From our point of view, of course, there is more than this to be done, but at least the outlook to-day continues favorable.

There are complexities in Secretary Lansing's memorandum on the status of armed merchant vessels, made public last week, but the main object aimed at in issuing it at this time seems unmistakable. The American note to Germany brought to a head the issue which has been pending between the two countries for more than a year. The German declaration of two months ago, concerning armed merchantmen, tended to bring into that issue a new and confusing element. It seems clearly the purpose of Mr. Lansing's memorandum to make it impossible to drag that element into the present situation. The stand taken in our note of April 18 was far too broad and too fundamental to admit of being disturbed by any special plea concerning the status of armed merchantmen; yet there existed the possibility of an attempt on the part of Berlin to divert the issue by means of such a plea. Our position, therefore, on that subject, is set forth with extraordinary completeness, not by way of modifying in the slightest degree what was said in the note to Germany, but so as to leave no excuse for raising unessential points which could serve no purpose but that of irritating delay.

The British note in reply to our Government's protest against the methods pursued by the Allies in relation to the blockade and to shipments of contraband has come at a time when interest is centred on the more acute issue between the United States and Germany, and on that account has received less attention than its importance merits. Moreover, though the summary of its chief points in the newspapers probably gives a very fair idea of the contents of the note, it cannot be adequately commented on until the full text of the document has been made accessible. Some points, however, stand out very clearly, and especially the strong case made on the subject of the actual destination of goods ostensibly shipped to a neutral country. The note gives a number of illustrations of systematic fraud in consignment papers, which go far towards justifying its assertion that to insist on "a rule that no goods could be seized unless they were accompanied by papers which established their destination to an enemy country, and that all detentions of ships and goods must uniformly be based on proofs obtained at the time of seizure," would be "tantamount to asking that all trade between neutral ports shall be free, and would thus render nugatory the exercise of sea power and destroy the pressure which the command of the sea enables the Allies to impose upon their enemy." The distinction between this position of the Allies and that which Germany assumed in her submarine policy is that the one refers solely to a question of method in exercising an old-established right, while the other involves the commission of acts in violation of simple and fundamental principles of civilized warfare.

Among the illustrations of undeniable fraud in the note are consignments of meat products "addressed to lightermen and dock laborers," and thousands of tons of such goods "documented for a neutral port and addressed to firms which do not exist there." In one instance the ostensible consignee was a baker, in another a maker of musical instruments. Another aspect of the same argument is the statistical, which, like that regarding fraudulent papers, is not touched on for the first time, but is impressed more strongly than heretofore. Thus, when it is pointed out that the imports of lard from the United States into Sweden in 1915 amounted to 9,029 tons, as against an annual average of 638 tons in the three preceding years, it is impossible to contend that this may have been due to the shutting out of other sources of supply, since the total imports of the article into Sweden are also given. These were 9,318 tons in 1915, but averaged only 888 tons in the three preceding years. All this is legitimate and effective argumentation. To what extent, as to other essential points in the dispute, the note may make resort to the favorite German plea of necessity, only an examination of the full document can enable one to judge.

About the figures quoted by Mr. Asquith as the basis of the compromise arrangement in recruiting, there is the same puzzle that has attended British recruiting statistics from the beginning. This puzzle consists in the fact that, while the British nation has been volunteering by the millions, the authorities every little while go off into panic over mere tens of thousands. Thus we know that to-day the fourth million of recruits is drilling in England, and yet the difference between conscription and no conscription is to be decided, according to the present compromise, by the fact whether 200,000 recruits can be obtained in the next fifteen weeks; that is, whether the present recruited British strength can be increased by about one-fifteenth. Surely, the difference between an army of 3,500,000 men and one of 3,700,000 is hardly the difference between victory and defeat. When, therefore, Mr. Asquith said that under present arrangements the "necessary numbers required for the discharge of our military obligations will not be available," it would seem that England is under contract with the Allies to supply a precisely fixed number of men. Otherwise the question is not a military one at all, but a political one.

Of 736 merchant ships destroyed by submarine or mine since the beginning of the war, 198 were neutral vessels. This means that for every eleven Allied vessels lost, four neutral ships have been destroyed. Norway has lost more than one and a half times as many ships as France, and one-fifth as many as Great Britain. In tonnage the disparity is probably greater, since the average British craft is larger than the Nor-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

wegian. Nevertheless, when we recall that at the beginning of the war Norway's merchant marine was just a little less than one-tenth that of Great Britain, it is more than reasonable to assume that the Norwegian merchant marine has suffered as heavily in proportion as the British. If the people of Norway have made no serious protest against the losses inflicted by submarine and mine, it is due to the vastly increased profits which the war has brought to the shipping interests of all nations. Probably, also, Germany has made compensation to Norwegian owners where a clear case lay against German submarine commanders. If, therefore, Norway can easily reconcile herself to a loss as large as Great Britain's because of compensatory profits in the way of hard cash, Great Britain in turn will argue that the stakes involved in a war for empire and self-preservation are more than fair compensation for the drain and strain on her shipping resources.

Since the Philippine bill, fixing a definite time for declaring the independence of the islands, had been made an Administration measure, its defeat in the House on Monday was a defeat for President Wilson. The bill has had unskilled parliamentary handling. The amendment fixing four years as the period after which the Philippines were to go their own way, was written into the bill in a rather haphazard way in the Senate. At the time, Mr. Wilson was supposed to be against it; but a letter from him endorsing it was read to the House Democratic caucus. Its rejection is thus another blow to his prestige with Congress. The House finally passed the original Jones bill, giving to the Filipinos a larger measure of home rule, and reaffirming the purpose of the United States to grant them independence in due time. Whether the Senate will agree to this is as yet uncertain. One would say that Administration and party pressure to get through some kind of Philippine legislation, looking to the keeping of Democratic pledges, would be strong. It will not have escaped notice that among the Democratic bolters in the House was a large proportion of gentlemen with Irish names. They would doubtless fight to the death for an Irish republic. A Philippine republic, however, seems to them a fearsome thing.

With legislation on rural credits receiving the right of way in the Senate, the Hollis bill has again come to the front. The result of long study by House and Senate committees, it is a modification of a bill of last year which was objectionable to the President because it provided too much Federal aid. It would establish a farm-loan board which should have general control over the system, and twelve or more land banks to make loans on mortgage to the farmer, and it would encourage the formation of farm-loan associations to represent the farmers in their dealings with the banks. Senator Hollis is positive that it would enable investors to buy long-term interest-bearing bonds "secured in common with thousands of like bonds on millions of dollars worth of farm lands, guaranteed by twelve banks with an aggregate capital of not less than $6,000,000, with selected borrowers of known character, with titles examined, and all details attended to by trained men." But the essential question is whether the States are so inert that the problem cannot be worked out without Federal aid. The American Commission, assembled by the Southern Commercial Congress, said in its report that it could. The United States Commission, after investigations in Europe and at home, reported that "it is our opinion that such aid should not be extended in the United States." Secretary Houston stated in his report for 1914 that "there is no emergency calling for the use of the Government's cash or the Government's credit," and President Wilson declared in 1913 that the farmers ask no special privilege, "such as extending to them the credit of the Government itself."

Presidential polls are of all kinds, many of them signifying nothing, but one published in the *Literary Digest* has more than usual meaning. It is a poll of "Republican Lawmakers"—that is, the Presidential preferences expressed by the Republican members of State Legislatures. The returns are not complete, but so far as they go they have their tale to tell. Eliminating a lot of local favorites, the clear tendency is to concentrate upon three candidates of national fame. These are, in the order of the votes cast, Hughes, Roosevelt, and Root. Hughes has 758 votes, Roosevelt 275, and Root 138. The Legislatures of 31 States were polled, and in only four of them was the Roosevelt vote larger than that for Hughes. The result is worth recording as being one sign more of the country-wide strength of the unavowed candidacy of Judge Hughes. The *Literary Digest* believes that these lawmakers know better than most the sentiment of the voters in their districts. Many of these Republican members of the Legislature will also be delegates to the Chicago Convention.

On Friday night, in an interview, his first since the present fight for control of the State organization began, Penrose said: "Brumbaugh is not in good faith a candidate for the Presidency." Twenty-four hours later the Governor said to an audience: "I am not a candidate for any office." Thus it is agreed on both sides that Brumbaugh's Presidential candidacy is only a means of crystallizing the opposition to Penrose. But a candidate in form he is—and how much more is Penrose's candidate, Knox? What, then, will become of Gov. Brumbaugh's delegates if he succeeds in defeating the Senator? Obviously, he cannot be and not be a candidate at one and the same time. He is not in the position of Henry Ford, for he is fighting for delegates. Only, he wants them for local rather than national purposes. His strange attitude would be utterly fantastic in any campaign but the present one, when the most dangerous candidates are insisting that nobody vote for them. Brumbaugh's delegates—if he gets them—must go somewhere, and his associations within his party point to the possibility of their loping over into the reservation described as that of the Flinn-Van Valkenburg forces. Over this way, we speak of it as belonging to the Colonel.

"Henry Ford, with his minimum wage of $5 a day, has already put the nation to shame," says the Atlanta *Constitution*, writing in advocacy of better pay for the civil-service employees of the Federal Government. Surely, the *Constitution* knows better than that. What Mr. Ford did for his employees was an act of generosity, or liberality, or what you will, made possible by profits of a kind which, it is safe to say, are without parallel in the whole history of industry and commerce. It cannot be pointed to as a standard which either private or public employers may be asked to live up to. The situation of private employers who have to strain every nerve in order to make their profits amount to 6 or 10 or 20 per cent. on their invested capital has nothing in common with that of a man who has had the amazing fortune of annual profits at the rate of 1,000 per cent., or 10,000 per cent. And as for the Government, it is a trustee for the whole people, and the rate of pay it fixes for its employees must be regulated by a due consideration of the rights of the people at large who are the real employer, as well

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

as of the legitimate demands of the civil servants who are the employees.

There are gratifying indications that the Manufacturers' Protective Association in the cloak trade has begun to realize its error of policy and tactics. It set out to force a "fight to a finish" with its employees, against the earnest efforts of representative public men to maintain the peace and to preserve a system of broad conciliation which has been welcomed in many quarters as a great forward step in the stabilization of industrial relations. It now appears that the action of the Association is far from reflecting the unanimous opinion of its members, and this is scarcely odd, in view of the general public disapproval with which the step has been received. Grievances undoubtedly the employers have. It may very well be that the demands of the union representatives have been irksome in specific cases. But it is not to be expected that a system of peaceful adjustment within a great trade can be perfected without occasional difficulties and irritations. If the protocol system is worth preserving, and the great mass of disinterested opinion holds that it is, there surely is need for patience and forbearance on both sides.

The free-for-all political fight now under way in Georgia adds fresh testimony to the extent to which the anti-lynching campaign there has taken hold. The Democratic opponent of Gov. Harris, L. G. Hardman, calls for a more vigorous attitude in the matter. In the Republican party the faction of Johnson has taken a strong stand on two State questions—against the sale of the Western & Atlantic Railway, owned by the State, and in favor of a determined enforcement of the law. It declares for a measure which should compel a county in which a lynching occurs to pay an indemnity of $10,000 to the family of the lynched man, and would disqualify the Sheriff for reëlection. State politics are complicated this year, but November will give the people an opportunity to make known their disgust with the recent carnival of lynching in Georgia.

Announcement that *Harper's Weekly* has given up the struggle for existence, and is to be merged with the *Independent*, is a fresh reminder of the great changes which have come about in the publishing of illustrated weeklies. When the Harpers sold the *Weekly*, Col. Harvey frankly admitted that it had been losing money for some time. Conditions have so altered, what with the pictorial feature of the daily and Sunday newspapers, and other shiftings of public taste, that success along the old lines has become increasingly difficult. It may be doubted whether even George William Curtis and Nast could to-day make the *Weekly* the power it was in its heyday. Under Mr. Hapgood's management, it enlisted many notable contributors, and struck out boldly in the effort to be original and startling; but the freakish and eccentric element which he made so prominent repelled more readers than it won. For many months the signs of dissolution have been visible in the *Weekly*, and it was only a question of time, we suppose, when it would disappear. But the older generation, at least, cannot be denied a sigh at the extinction of a name which has meant so much in American journalism.

The musical world suffers a grievous loss in the death of Edward J. De Coppet. To him the United States owes the Flonzaley Quartet, whose members were personally selected by Mr. De Coppet, brought to this country, and, thanks to his munificence, enabled to concentrate themselves upon their work. They had no harassing anxieties as to their future, no business or professional cares to worry them. In return for these ideal artistic conditions, he asked of them a diligence in practice possible for no other group of chamber musicians, for he realized that no artist or set of artists ever reaches the point where one does not have to work in order to attain and retain the highest purity of tone, the best technique, the most perfect *ensemble*. Mr. De Coppet, besides giving the public the opportunity to hear the Flonzaley, shared its achievements generously with hosts of friends. But the whole record of his life was one of unselfish generosity. The number of artists whom he aided is legion, and almost every musical organization in New York city counted him as one of its benefactors. From the beginning of the war he personally maintained a group of ambulances for the French army, but, like everything else he did, with such quiet, retiring modesty that few were aware of it. New York has seldom seen a wiser patron of the arts or a more complete realization of the communal responsibilities which wealth brings to the man of conscience.

A careful compilation and study of reports by American travellers just returned from Europe shows the following state of affairs in Berlin, Vienna, Constantinople, Paris, and London. Everywhere there is plenty of food, though prices are from three to five times above normal and rioting at the butcher shops and the fish markets by starving women is a daily occurrence. One would hardly guess, from the appearance of the city, that a war is under way, except that everybody you meet is in mourning, that women are employed to clean the streets and repair telegraph wires, and that every third man you meet has a leg or arm missing. There is plainly no lack of recruits for the front, because you see in the cities as many young men as in times of peace; this will be a surprise for the enemy who is being further deceived by the dispatch to the front of old men, boys, and physical defectives. The theatres are even more crowded than in times of peace, and in addition there are ever so many free restaurants for the feeding of actors and actresses, musicians, etc. Everywhere you go you hear only one word, and that is "Victory!" the only difference being that a few people speak of victory next year and most people expect victory by 1923.

Even in war-time South Africa takes thought for the development of higher education. Premier Botha has brought in a scheme to meet the needs of the Union which, though murmured against in Johannesburg, is deemed certain of acceptance. It contemplates the establishment of three great institutions: the University of South Africa, the University of Cape Town, and the University of Stellenbosch. The first will be a federation of a number of colleges over the whole country, will have its central seat at Pretoria, and will control the entrance examinations of the other two. The University of Cape Town supplants the South African College, founded there in 1829, and will be a residential university, modelled after Oxford. For its buildings, large benefactions left by Sir Julius Wernher and Alfred Beit will be used, and it has the splendid Groote Schur site of the Rhodes monument. The University of Stellenbosch is a new name for Victoria College, and preserves a Dutch title for an institution that has always been predominantly Dutch. South Africa has never lacked collegiate institutions, having had seven in receipt of Government aid, and others supported by religious bodies. But it is probably felt that educational energy has been dissipated, and that three great universities, one an examining body will do more than the older system.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE IRISH OUTBREAK.

"It is difficult to avoid the impression," wrote Lord Rosebery in his Life of Pitt, "that there has been throughout the past history of England and Ireland a malignant fate waving away every auspicious chance, and blighting every opportunity of beneficence as it arises." Such melancholy reflections must have been forced upon many lifelong advocates of Home Rule for Ireland by the news last week of the insensate uprising in Dublin. It is one of those things which, like the Phœnix Park assassinations of 1882, almost tempt the truest friends of Irish nationality to despair. The London press, on the day following Mr. Birrell's statement, spoke of general sympathy for the Irish leader, John Redmond. He must, indeed, feel, as Parnell did when Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke were foully murdered in Dublin, that a felon blow had been dealt both him and the Irish cause. Is it to be the old story over again of the efforts of the freely elected representatives of Ireland in the British Parliament, and of large-minded English statesmen, cast to the earth by desperate and criminal Irishmen?

Let it freely be conceded that the existence of these conspirators and revolutionaries in Ireland is a reproach to English rule. It is a severe indictment of British policy in Ireland that ever since Cromwell's day there have been bands of Irishmen ready to risk all in striking at England. This inveterate and inherited national hatred, this settled and sullen distrust, this smouldering desire for wild and blind vengeance, are the bitter fruit of mistaken statesmanship, persisting through the centuries. The manifestations of this spirit have usually been acts like those of madmen; but its existence, through all the generations, has been a standing proof of English governmental folly. England is to-day seeing the truth of what she was told by Bright and Gladstone, that her Irish policy had been a source of Imperial weakness, raising up enemies at her flank. The fact that even at a world-crisis like this the preachers of sedition and revolt in Ireland should have persuaded rash men to rise and seek to stab England in the back, is proof that the long years of oppressive English rule had generated evil passions not easily to be extirpated from Irish hearts.

That the recent outbreak was so inept as to be almost idiotic must be evident to the minds of all but the Irishmen who took part in it. They have brought immense disrepute upon themselves, and have done it in an attempt absurdly ill-chosen and doomed to failure. England never had so many troops at ready disposal as she has to-day to put down an Irish rebellion. There must be a million men under arms in England and Ireland. As a military movement, therefore, the rising in Dublin was without any possible hope. And in so far as it seems to link the conspirators with German plots and shipments of arms, it brings upon the reckless men who went into it a double charge of treason. Their course also repels the great majority of thoughtful and influential Irishmen in the United States, as in Canada and Australia. The latter have been nourishing themselves on the hope that Home Rule for Ireland was at last dawning. The bill is law, its execution being merely suspended until after the war. But will not this new outburst of Irish crime, this fresh demonstration that there are groups of the violent-minded in Ireland who cannot be controlled by Irish leaders, tend to make Parliament regret and perhaps recall its grant?

On this point, the Irish Home Rulers will be inexcusably stupid if they do not take into account the present activities of their great enemy in the North of Ireland, Sir Edward Carson. He was ready for a civil war in 1914 to prevent Home Rule. What is he doing in 1916? He is doing his best to upset the Coalition Government, and to make himself a political power. In this he acts on the pretence of more vigorously prosecuting the war against Germany, but if he succeeds in becoming a necessary man in a new Cabinet, what will he be certain to do when the war ends? Obviously, to burke Home Rule, after all; and how greatly would he be aided in any such endeavor by what he could call the evidence that Irishmen were willing to place England as a bleeding victim under the heel of Prussian militarism!

In actual physical effect, it was all along impossible that the Irish uprising would be of great consequence. It wholly collapsed in a week, and does not appear to have been widespread, being mostly confined to Dublin and the hotheads of the Sinn Fein. It cannot affect the large ongoing of the war. But morally, of course, and politically, it is an event of high though painful significance. The best that the friends of Ireland can hope for is that the revolt will speedily be forgotten. Its moving spirits were young dreamers and writers who rushed to the sacrifice with a Sophocles in one hand and a rifle in the other. If the English are wise, they will not execute the captured rebels, but treat them as amiable and pathetic lunatics mostly in need of restraint and care.

KUT-EL-AMARA AND THE WAR.

If the British temperament were given to ironic self-inquiry, it might find a gloomy sort of satisfaction in events on the Tigris. For nearly a century British policy was devoted to keeping alive the Sick Man of Europe. How well the patient has done under British ministrations, there are Gallipoli and Kut to show. The trouble was that the English generals in the East thought the Sick Man much more enfeebled than he was. The one outstanding reason for the British failure in Mesopotamia may be described as the Kipling touch. There was about the expedition too much of the old feeling that a British general with his riding whip was always a match for hosts of the lower breeds. The mistake was in putting the Turks, in spite of their unbroken tradition of excellent fighting, on a level with the mountain tribes on the Indian border. About the Kipling state of mind there is unquestionably something splendid, and in other days it was effective. In justice to Gens. Nixon and Townshend it must be recalled how near the British did get to Bagdad, and that a different outcome to the battle of Ctesiphon would have made the undertaking one of the most splendid feats in military history. The British gambled for Bagdad as the Germans gambled for Paris; what they lacked was resourcefulness under failure. And for that matter history is yet likely to show that the defeat at the Marne was an infinitely greater failure than the surrender at Kut.

This does not mean that the moral effect of the disaster on the Tigris need be minimized. But for the moral effect we must look to Europe, and not to Asia. There is altogether an exaggerated tendency to emphasize the effect on the peoples of the Orient of such a shock to the white man's prestige as is involved in a defeat like Gallipoli or Kut. The loss of prestige is there. England's subjects in India may lose something of their awe for their masters. China and Egypt and the Mohammedan world may find pleasure in British humiliation. But immediate practical effects are not to be expected. A little more watchfulness may be called for in India and Egypt, but that vague and vast uprising of the Orient which has been spoken of for many years is not perceptibly nearer. It was not hastened by Gallipoli, and it is not likely to be furthered by Kut-el-Amara. It will be recalled how for years before the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

war there was insistence on the Pan-Islamic "peril," and how, after Turkey's entrance into the war, there were highly colored expectations of a Holy War that was to be the end of things in Asia and Africa. The peril has remained vague. British prestige has suffered, to be sure, but British prestige has suffered before this. Seventy-five years ago a British army, numbering with its followers more than 16,000 men, was annihilated in Afghanistan. The event was followed by no cataclysm in India.

The moral effect on military affairs in Europe is much more serious. The disaster at Kut-el-Amara will reinforce the well-established impression of England's lack of high-class generalship. In view of the blunders at Gallipoli and in Mesopotamia, it is not necessary to suspect that the comparative ineffectiveness of the British land forces in the west is the result of a sinister plan, that Great Britain has deliberately chosen to let French and Russians and Germans wear themselves out in order that the war may leave her with the strongest army in Europe. Great Britain has done her best on land, but that best is not very good when it comes to a question of leadership. And this factor is all the more important because it is mainly to the British armies that the Allies must look for the hopes of a decisive victory that they cherish. Champagne and Verdun have shown what it means to "break through." The attempt will undoubtedly be made by the British army. The long period of inactivity may be due to the determination to make that attempt with unprecedented vigor. It is conceivable that what the French with a quarter of a million men failed to do in Champagne, and the Germans with even greater numbers failed to do around Verdun, England may accomplish by sending in a million men or a million and a half. She has the men. The problem is whether she has the leaders.

In England the effect of the surrender at Kut on the political situation will be most unhappy. Asquith's position is not so strong to-day but that a combination of Ireland and Mesopotamia may supply the Carson-Northcliffe-Lloyd George entente with the necessary leverage to overthrow the Coalition Government. The swift failure of the Irish uprising might, in quieter times, be urged by the Government as a sign of the loyalty of the mass of the Irish population. The surrender at Kut is not a great military disaster. But, given a time of anxiety, of unrest and discontent, it does not need a very large event to force public opinion over the line from anxiety to panic. There is no logical relation between Villa's raid on Columbus and our need of an incomparable fleet; and the incidents at Parral did not prove that we must have an army of 250,000 men instead of 140,000, yet we know what the effect has been on the temper of Congress. Dublin and Kut, coming together, may create a state of mind for which the "strong" men of England have been waiting.

THE REPUBLICAN TURNING-POINT.

Last week gave the answer to the question who are to be in control of the Republican Convention. Out of the total of 985 delegates, over 700 have now been chosen. They represent all the large Republican States, except Pennsylvania; and the delegates yet to be named can hardly affect the general temper and inclination of the Chicago Convention. It is already clear that in its great majority it will be made up of Republicans who may be variously described as "regular," "safe," or "moderate," and who are plainly, as at present advised, against the wild adventure of nominating Roosevelt.

So far as there has been an organized campaign to force Roosevelt upon the Republican Convention, the universal and justified opinion is that it passed its danger-point in the Massachusetts primary. This is not simply because the Roosevelt delegates were soundly beaten, but that they were able to muster so small a total vote. They did the only open fighting. They had plenty of money and made plenty of noise. Personal appeals by the hundred thousand were sent out to the old Roosevelt following. Yet with the primary open to them, and with the chance of showing the country that the Roosevelt obsession still holds Massachusetts in its grip, scarcely more than a quarter of those who voted for him in 1912 took the trouble to stand by him last week. If there was anywhere to be a wild-fire movement for Roosevelt, Massachusetts was the place to look for it. But it was only a flare of dry leaves.

On the result the Colonel himself refuses to comment. That is his way. In the very whirlwind of his passion for telling the public all about it, he is always able to beget a temperance when it comes to events that do not look well for him. But the impetuous Progressives who hang about Oyster Bay are not so discreetly silent. They have little to say, it is true, about Massachusetts, but they are shaking their heads sagely and remarking that it looks as if there would have to be a third party in the field again this year. The reason is that the Republicans are joined to their idols. Although the Republican leaders know that Theodore Roosevelt is the most popular man in the land, and that they ought to nominate him, the Progressive General Staff is making up its mind that they will not. And so the talk comes from the neighborhood of Roosevelt that he will not put up with "another robbery." This is a rather absurd baked meat left over from the funeral of four years ago, inasmuch as at present no one pretends that anybody is taking from Roosevelt any delegates to whom he has a shadow of a claim. But the cry is raised as a part of the intimidating tactics which are all that the Progressives now have in reserve. As they see their chance of wheedling, or stampeding, the Republican Convention disappearing, they resort to threats and bullying. If you don't take Roosevelt, he will run a ticket of his own and smash you again. Perhaps they mean this seriously, but we much doubt if the Colonel does. It is a good enough attempt at terrorism until after the Convention, but those who fancy that Mr. Roosevelt has a hankering to lead another forlorn hope to defeat had better take a closer look at the man. We, at least, do not so read his character.

Taking it as settled that the Republican Convention is to be securely in the hands of Republican leaders and delegates opposed to Roosevelt, who are proof against the blare of the Progressive brass bands, political speculation centres on the question whom they are most likely to agree upon when the time comes to concentrate. The early balloting will apparently be indecisive. Several favorite sons—Sherman, Cummins, Fairbanks, Burton—will have to have their perfunctory compliments paid them. But the hour will arrive when it will be necessary to come to grapples with the question who has the best chance of being elected if nominated. To say that this question is already answered would be foolish; but it would be equally foolish not to note the spreading belief that the man will be Hughes. This drift is everywhere observable. Every test one can make reveals it. Even the *Tribune's* Washington dispatches report the deepening conviction of Republicans in Congress that the nomination will go to Hughes. As one evidence of the general trend, Col. George Harvey comes out in the latest issue of the *North American Review* with the positive prediction that Hughes will be the Re-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

publican candidate. We are sometimes afraid of Col. Harvey when he mounts the tripod for oracular deliverances, but in this case he is not far wrong when he sums up the way in which political opinion is manifesting itself:

> Ask the man in the street, on the sidewalk, in the car, on the subway, in the Pullman, on the jitney, in the vestibule after service, on the golf links before or after, downtown or uptown, in or out of clubs not dominated by masters of finance, in Hartford, Springfield, or Peacham, in wealth-wallowing Pittsburgh, even, or Columbus, or on the farms of Iowa, in Oregon, or Washington, anywhere and everywhere, up hill and down dale, in this broad land, ask yourself, your wife, your plethoric uncle, your spinster aunt —and what do you find?
>
> Some who distrust the supporters of Root; many who are angry at Roosevelt; not a few, inclusive of Democrats, who are sick of Wilson; none whose countenance fails to brighten at the mention of Hughes.

Likelihoods are safer to go upon than sweeping predictions. Prophecy in politics has been rightly called a gratuitous blunder. It is not a case of asserting to-day what surely will be, but only what probably will be. The certain thing is that the Republicans have passed the turning-point, so far as the Roosevelt attack is concerned. And the signs point significantly to the conclusion that they will find their best man to rally behind in the person of Charles E. Hughes.

THE ART OF BLAKELOCK.

Recent renewal of interest in Blakelock, culminating on Wednesday of last week in the honor done him by the National Academy, raises inquiry about his art. In the development of American landscape painting, it goes, in certain directions, beyond anything produced by any other American. This is not to say that it is the greatest American art, that it surpasses the work of such men as Inness, Wyant, Martin, or Homer, but that it has occupied a field which has scarcely been touched by any of these—by no native artist, in fact, with the possible exception of Fuller.

American painting, like American literature, belongs, in general, to cool, middle-of-the-road objectivity. To Inness and his contemporaries painting was a distinctively representative art, a means for expressing moods only in the indirect, the subtle way usually considered legitimate in the plastic arts. For Inness the Passaic Valley at sunset was first of all the Passaic Valley, to be faithfully reproduced as he and the rest of the world saw it stretched out at his feet, swimming in the pulsating haze of a hot summer evening. On top of this, of course, he managed to impress himself, his own mood and personality, an indistinguishable ingredient in a combination of visualization and emotion. This picture is, in a manner, the apogee of American and Anglo-Saxon landscape, a perfect adaptation of the end to the means, a monumental acknowledgment of the limitations of a medium—that painting cannot, any more than the other forms, shake off its material restrictions and emerge into adjacent realms of poetry or music.

While Inness thus proved the general rule for American art, Blakelock was the confirming exception. Our creative history is full of these surprising phenomena, these sports of evolution, as the biologists would call them. Most normal, most commonplace of peoples, we have a gift, on occasion, for strange, unusual, and extreme manifestations of individualism. At such times, in the persons of such men as Poe or Blakelock, American art seems to flare up and consume the boundary-posts of convention and become a law unto itself. William Blake, whose weird urgency of spirit seemed tortured within the narrow limits of two arts, and Coleridge correspond in England to these two Americans. But Blakelock goes furthest in his freedom from conscious premeditation and his complete triumph over the limitations of his medium. He almost seems able to make his palette sing; he paints the invisible in pigments, as Coleridge once, and once only, succeeded in expressing the inexpressible in words. Boldly he infringes on the realms both of music and of poetry. His landscapes are not landscapes of sober fact. These wild sunsets, glimpsed through the arched gloom of indistinct forest glades, are never any sunsets seen on sea or land, but are the illumination of his own soul.

Blakelock and Poe are, in this, kindred spirits. The world about them becomes a strange and awe-inspiring spectacle. It matters not where they wander, what they describe, everything assumes at once the coloring of their own terrific moods. Blakelock, perhaps, is the more successful of the two. He is not hampered by any artificialities of style or subject. He is absolutely straightforward and unmannered. He plucks you, with a rough directness, right into the heart of his sombre mystery. He accomplishes this by basing his painted lyric, contradictory as such a statement would appear, after all, upon a certain foundation of realism, from which he himself, no doubt, received his initial emotional stimulus. These forests of autumnal oaks, with thickly massed leaves of russet brown, are not entirely the fantasies of his brain, but are, in their elements, familiar to the American eye. By so much more is their transfiguration into the "something new and strange" of Blakelock's inner life rendered touching and tragic. It is here that his strength lies. You move through his pictures as through dreams, surrounded by strange yet familiar objects. His pigments have the power to transfigure the commonplace setting of his stage. Here lurks his magic.

This would seem the fair account of Blakelock's art for the present generation, which understands his symbols and follows him into the realms of the impalpable. Unfortunately, it is not at all certain that he will be able to impress himself and his subjective methods equally upon the next generation. It is the penalty of breaking the sane rules imposed by a medium that only the greatest spirits are able to survive the transgression and remain intelligible. An artist like Inness played safe with posterity. But Blakelock has staked his whole fortune, as it were, upon a single throw.

ETHNOLOGICAL WORK IN THE SOUTHWEST.

The announcement that the American Museum of Natural History, with funds provided by Archer M. Huntington, is to send six expeditions this year among the pueblos and other ruins of the Southwest, with plans that call for a continuation of the work inaugurated just seven years ago, is a reminder of the progress of the greatest work undertaken by American ethnologists and archæologists. It is only twenty-five years since the American Bureau of Ethnology began converting a realm of fable and theory into one in which science holds sway. The Bureau has been assisted by individuals; by the States of the Southwest; by the University of Colorado—with which the New York Museum is to correlate part of its work—and by other museums of natural history. The net result is that the ruins of the huge area bounded by the Colorado and the Rio Grande have been well mapped; that the general unity of the cliff dwellers, mesa-dwellers, pueblo-dwellers, past and present, and the builders of the prehistoric irrigation canals of the region has been demonstrated, and that many ruins have been preserved as national or State monuments that would otherwise have perished.

The first explorers of the Southwest found

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

it covered with the ruins of towers, big communal houses, and small houses isolated or in clusters; while they found also larger houses which looked in many ways like the ruins, some on the mesa tops of the extreme south inhabited by the Hopis, some by the Pueblos, the Zuñi, and others. The fiction and pseudo-science which the cliff and plain dwellings afforded are still remembered. A race called the Cliff Dwellers was set up and fully described. First they were descendants of the Aztecs. Then they were a race of dwarfs—the low entrances to their houses giving rise to this hypothesis. Then they were a distinct and cultured people who had fled from hostile tribes, but had been exterminated. The visit of the Government ethnologist Mindeleff to the sixty-five-acre ruin in the Gila River Valley, called Casa Grande, resulted in a beginning of careful study. By 1899, when Congress had made an appropriation for the preservation of the Casa Grande ruins, a half-dozen localities had received distinct attention—the Tusayan ruins, the Salt and Gila River ruins, the Verde Valley ruins, the ruins near Flagstaff, and the Little Colorado ruins. The explanation of the cliff dwellings was simple. Much the same people as the Zuñi, Hopi, and other agricultural Indians of to-day had erected there homes where they might protect themselves and their fields against the raids of the Apaches and Tontos. The uncertainties of rainfall were responsible for their frequent migrations and the consequent ruins. The distinct Cliff Dwellers were complete fiction.

But most of the purely archæological work in the Southwest remained to be done in the last ten years. In 1906 Congress passed an act giving the Government the right to set aside antiquities for preservation. This was due mainly to the vandalism that had been practiced upon the cliff dwellings. The best ruin of the Verde region, for example, the Montezuma Castle of thirty rooms on a cliff reaching 150 feet above the plain, was dug to pieces and the walls even dynamited in the search for pottery. Some public-spirited Arizonans first unsuccessfully attempted to interest the Legislature, and then raised enough money to restore it, replacing the damaged foundation and roofs and running iron rods through the walls. It is now a national monument. The Archæological Institute of America, which had founded schools at Athens, Rome, and Jerusalem between 1880 and 1900, did not think of one in the Southwest till 1907. Its branch there now has a museum in the Governor's Palace at Santa Fé, and every summer holds a session at some group of ruins in northern New Mexico. Certain of its discoveries on the Rio Grande, as the cliff city of Puye and the circular community house of Tuyuonyi, are among the standard attractions for tourists. Much still remains to be done. The American Museum has found in its seven years' work several new ruins which it is now fully examining. In Arizona the ruins of the Flagstaff region were hardly known until 1910, when they were thought to be important enough to justify the creation of the Navajo National Monument, and even yet they have not been fully surveyed. But for the most part the work to be done is to carry out in detail ethnological and archæological studies already begun.

This work will achieve two main objects: it will give us a reconstruction of the richest aboriginal civilization on American soil, and it will enable us to connect this dead past with the present-day life of the Hopi and Zuñi, and better to understand their problems. It has been possible already to trace the development of certain arts, as pottery-making, among the Southwestern peoples. In some ruins a restoration has been attempted of modes of living of centuries ago, even to cooking utensils, fire screen, water gourd, and meal box. The solidarity of the life of the agricultural Indian peoples from prehistoric days has been demonstrated. The effect of this on the white's attitude towards the Indian has already been felt. There is no longer the old desire to put him in a corrugated iron house, and make him adopt new ways in a single day. He is looked upon as the representative of an ancient mode of living.

Foreign Correspondence

INTER-ALLY CONFERENCES—WHAT IS UNITY OF ACTION?

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, April 15.

At the end of March we had one Conference *inter* Allies; it was among Prime Ministers and Generalissimos and other great men of government and command. In a month, more or less, we are to have an Inter-Parliamentarian Conference, that the deliberative bodies of the nations may check off and control their leaders without falling out of step, particularly in economic measures. And before and after, we have meetings of the Allies' unofficial trade organizations, which are led by individual initiative and give the real force of their democracy.

It may be said that, among the Allies, Russia is not a democracy; but the Russian people is a Demos whose activity is becoming more and more spontaneous from individual groups upward—and not an organization for efficiency imposed downward. This means that all these conferences are not mere governmental congresses or conventions for peace or war, but national minds uniting and meeting the common need together. They are the tentative beginning, under pressure of events, of the Parliament of Nations—a Federation of half Humanity.

> Slowly comes a hungry people, as a lion creeping nigher
> Glares at one that nods and winks behind a slowly dying fire.

The need is creating the organ. What shall its action be? At first, very evidently, an imperfect reaching about—not always "efficient," if you apply the technical slang of the day to it. It is still for war, because that is the immediate need; but it is also for peace which must some day follow war.

The idea has been spread that this Inter-Ally activity purposes keeping up war after peace is declared, that is, economic war. This idea spreads into chapters too numerous to mention here. It is enough to say that, as the Allies' military war is one of defence, so the economic war to come needs not to be offensive. The *sentimental consequences* of war, natural and unavoidable and among the risks which the aggressor chose to run, and the reparation of damages caused by the aggressor and effectual means to prevent repetition of the aggression, have all to be organized. These conferences among the Allies have not yet considered what indemnity Germany and her satellites shall pay for devastation done in Belgium and North France and Servia. The Federation which is being born has work that is at once nearer and more remote.

First, what is to be the result in military action? Without looking forward to so vast and vague a thing as ending the war altogether, France has a right to insist there shall be unity in action. After Belgium at the beginning, it is France that has been sacrificing herself in the battle. She has not complained, and she has given prodigally blood and lives and the means of life, as if she alone had to do the fighting. It has turned out, indeed, that she has done the most of it, and that, to the aggressor, her armies are, more than any others, those which must be destroyed. The first pact of the Allies recognized the sacred right of France, that none should make a peace without her. Now the Allied nations acknowledge that war shall not be waged apart from the needs and efforts of France. I do not know if this determination is due to the influence of Prime Minister Briand, as is said, but it is simple justice to France.

Very often the official censure has left blank the newspaper columns in which Senator Clemenceau exhales the impatience of a leader seventy years young, who has passed life in action; but it has allowed him to print, after the conference was over, words which Americans who love France would long since have signed:

"Our sons are heroes. The universe admires them; but it is not enough to sing them—we have to conquer, we have to conquer in France and conquer in Germany, we have to drive back the hordes of murder to their lair, that we may dictate to them laws of a peace of men in justice and right. Is it enough for this that our soldiers should be heaped up in sublime holocausts? No. I

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

cry it aloud, because it is the truth—and whoever hinders my crying it aloud is a criminal against our country.

"There is but one problem—How to conquer—and this has only one meaning—How to make the enemy turn his back. Let all our Allies, with all their efforts, fight with us against the same trenches and the same artillery."

This may well be a Senator's rather than a general's way of stating the problem, to which the Inter-Ally Conference has given for a solution—unity of military action. Promise seems to be made that we shall begin seeing it forthwith, in the time, times, and half a time of the Prophet's vision. In fact, it has begun.

While we wait, what can the unity of economic action portend? Surely no Zollverein, no federate assassination of free trade in England.

> Though old Religion shake her head,
> And say in bitter grief,
> The day behold, at first foretold,
> Of atheist unbelief—

there are many possible economic unions short of violating Manchester religion. There is a first common measure which these conferences imply may be taken, namely, a pact that, just as no separate treaty of peace shall be made, so no commercial treaty shall be made with the enemy without knowledge—and opportunity for observation and counsel and even protest—on the part of each of the Allies. The agricultural and industrial production of some of the Allies has been trammelled for years to come by Germany's acts of war, and they have a right to ask to be put back on equal footing. Indemnities, even if possible, would be unpractical to secure this; and they would be certainly no more moral than protective duties.

Let Free Traders live unalarmed. Even countries like France, whose economic existence is based on protection, are not likely to exaggerate now the system. Each separate nation will have to make a separate treaty of commerce—only, says the principle of Inter-Ally Conferences, let the making of it be sure and safe, in the interests of all. And let the Allies continue in the one mind, not alone of past friendship amid common danger, but watching out together against future aggression.

Germany understands the situation thoroughly, and will not herself follow any policy of muddling along. Already her commercial bodies have demanded that their privileges, which were registered in commercial treaties before the war, shall be consecrated anew in negotiations of peace. They forget that their own Treaty of Frankfort imposed on France the clause, "War annuls treaties." Of course, it was the other's ox that was being gored then.

Englishmen, who have not seen war at their homes, and whom national politics sometimes beset more than sound international policy, may indeed—at the end—render inoperative this Inter-Ally unity of economic action. They may forget that not to make new treaties is to renew the old—with all the mischievous "most favored nation" clauses, which so aided Germany to plan and prepare her aggression through years of peace. Time will tell, as it will tell other tales of victory, more or less complete. Selfish Americans might note, by the way, that the limiting of Germany opens out correspondingly their own horizons for the world's trade—*Weltmacht!*

Sociology and Science

By A. G. KELLER.

The only way for a science to get real recognition is by real demonstration. No amount of whining or sulking over "hostility," of assertion about lofty motives, of protestation, controversy, dialectics, or word-manipulation in general, is going to persuade the indifferent to lend attention or to reverse the unfavorable judgment of those who oppose. Accumulations of undeniable facts and objective study of them form the only safe foundation for any scientific structure.

It was the solid, brute force of Darwin's "shovelfuls of facts," together with his reputation for dispassionateness and scrupulous candor, that carried "Darwinism" forward to its destiny. There was in Darwin no whining about hostility; rather was there an avidity for all criticism and an absence of sensitiveness about personal glory. There was strenuous search for truth from facts. No fine argumentation or tenuous theory could have persuaded the "hodmen of science," as Huxley called them. Probably Wallace's essay would, by itself, have shared the fate of many another "bright idea." It was the patient labor of years, not the sudden vision, that did this business; and Wallace correctly stated the facts when he remarked, in 1909, that Darwin's share in the theory of evolution was to his as twenty years to three weeks.

Even Darwin, however, could have done nothing but for the great number of careful antecedent studies in the field. Preceding his entrance upon the scene there had been collected by many isolated workers in natural history a huge mass of facts and observations, which, having been merely "classified, labelled, and left," awaited the organizing and unifying mind. Nobody doubted the correctness of these observations, for they had been repeated and verified. What they needed was the disengagement of a unifying principle to give them meaning, and so to inspire observers to further activity. The time was ripe, and the man and the principle came.

I have cited a classic case in order to illustrate the meaning of "real demonstration." This was the way that a general belief in organic evolution came to be; and how universally it is now accepted, let any natural scientist say. Such scientists are going right on using the method of observation, collection, correction, verification, induction, and so on, and are thus getting results that we all are bound presently to accept. If sociology is to take its place as a recognized science, it must do so in some such manner.

I.

No one can deny that the facts of society's life have formed an object of interest and observation for many centuries. But we see no general recognition accorded to any theory of social evolution or to any system of sociology, at least since Spencer's time. And why not? In part, certainly, because the phenomena are far more complex than those of natural science; certainly also because, in this field, we may not experiment. But it cannot be denied, either, that observation has been carried on in anything but a dispassionate and objective manner, that generalizations have been formed on entirely insufficient and often incorrectly observed data, and that such hasty generalizations have commonly been erected at once into dogmas, which have then served as a basis for endless and often grotesque deduction. Too many minds have conceived themselves to be of the unifying type, and have set themselves to harmonize a series of guesses, dreams, and utopias upon the basis of some "principle" happily occurring to them.

The phenomena invite all this. Observation is made under bias, because the facts under review are those of human life, which touch human interests. A man can count the legs of a fly and report his findings without having his heart wrung because he thinks there are too many or too few. But when he observes the life of the society within which he himself lives, moves, and has his being, or some other human society near by, it is the rule that he shall approve or disapprove, be edified or horrified, by what he observes—that is, that he shall pass a moral judgment. Darwin himself fell into this eminently human error in what he said about the "crime" of slavery; and bewailed, upon Morley's protest, his own lack of "historic sense" in the matter. "Historic sense"—what did he mean by that? He meant knowledge of historic facts and of their evolutionary relations. His judgment had rested upon a compound of ignorance concerning past conditions and of emotion, generous though it was, over present ones. He hated slavery, and there was no equilibrator of cold, weighty, and inert fact to steady his judgment in passing upon it. This lack is what damaged much of "The Descent of Man"; "I felt," wrote Darwin, "that I was walking on a path unknown to me and full of pitfalls." He knew that here he had but scanty right to an opinion, because he had come to know, in his own domain, the conditions under which a man gets a right to an opinion.

If a scientist like Darwin, trained by a lifetime of conscientious practice, could readily and unconsciously make what he himself admitted to be a lapse of "historic sense," another man must be very sure of himself to think that he can "come close to conditions and issues and still remain as untrammelled by prejudice as if distant and detached and 'seated in a star.'"

What causes some of us almost to despair of "sociology" is that so many of those who profess it produce books and articles devoid of historic sense, the species, not to mention common-sense, the genus. One who passes judgment upon the run of sociological treatises discharges a disheartening

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

function if he has fallen into the habit of asking himself, as he lays the new volume down: "What would a genuine scientist, say, Professor ———, think of this?" An opulence of pronouncements; a dearth of evidence—with the result that the former are unverifiable, unless, perchance, they represent "painful elaborations of the obvious." This is particularly hazardous in the social field; for it must be realized that, especially when it comes to writing of contemporary society, the potential critics, and the dispensers of flout and sneer, are many times more numerous than those encountered by a natural scientist, say, an entomologist. Every one lives in human society and is so constituted that he comes to believe, universalizing upon his own experience, that he knows something about it. He thinks his own opinion "as good as the next man's" unless he gains an impression of that next man's knowledge, perspective, and grasp that somewhat awes him. He is not going to be much impressed by writers who draw, from current phenomena, conclusions which he thinks are wide of the truth, especially if those writers' judgments are "tentative" (as a pious hope or a well-intentioned grope is tentative) and are built upon by a structure of exhortation. He can drum up a set of "probably's" or alternative possibilities well enough for himself, if he thinks there is anything to be gained by it; and he can get his homilies on conduct at a definite place on a definite day. Straight common-sense disposes of a legion of so-called sociological pronouncements before they get very far. They do not verify, or they are not such as to need a ghost come from the grave to disclose them.

It is no marvel, then, that sociology is held in light esteem, and not alone by scientists and historians; it is what is to be expected from the unimpressed practical mind—from which it is not concealed that anybody can theorize easily and vaguely about social conditions and then work up some benevolent empirical scheme to "better" them. The sociologist is seen merely as the "next man," whose opinion has no especial claim to recognition; or perhaps he is even the restless busybody, poking, without any warrant, into other people's business. To better society is not like tinkering a refractory clock. To be at all impressive, an apostle to society needs background, perspective, distance, detachment; and poetry about stars does not supply these.

If a student of society is candid, he will admit that he is the unwitting and unwilling victim of most, at least, of the biases against which Spencer uttered a warning, forty years ago, in his "Study of Sociology." Every one of us, by living in the society of his place and time, is prejudiced in his judgment about the evolution and life of human society in general. He cannot emancipate himself from the current mores by any unaided effort of will. The only way to get outside of them so as to have enough "historic sense" to pass a scientific judgment upon them—that the "moral judgment" does not belong to social science any more than to natural science is an axiom which a number of sociologists seem not yet to have grasped—is to make a long and studious effort to do so; and the place to put in that effort is in the examination of other societies and other times, namely, in the objective study of historical anthropology, ethnography, and history. For here it is possible to attain the dispassion of at least relative indifference, inasmuch as interests are not in play. Thus is acquired "historic sense."

"But," retorts some sociologist, "I do not care anything about your anthropology or ancient history. What I deal with is things as they are *here* and *now!*" Perhaps an analogy may be permitted in this instance—in reality, it is more than an analogy; it is a parallel. Enter a patient into the doctor's consulting-room. "Doctor," he begins, "this is a family trouble. My father and grandfather . . ." "Tut! tut!" cries the wise man, "what do I care about your ancestors? I deal with things that are *here* and *now!* Let me feel your pulse. Put out your tongue. Very well! Take these pills and you'll be all right. If not, come again and we'll try something else. Ready, Miss Brown, for the next!"

> Original, fahr hin in deiner Pracht!
> Wie würde dich die Einsicht kränken.

The social doctor is commonly too quick and too rash in his diagnosis; too eager to cure, or at least to get rid of, the unpleasant symptoms. He hastens into therapeutics, in advance of a knowledge of elementary anatomy and physiology. He wants to have an applied science—or an applied something—right away, whether there is a pure science behind it or not. His heart may be all right, but his head is but indifferently stocked and steadied. He is too intent upon the bright idea and sometimes on the limelight. He is too impatient for results and recognition to be thorough, and so to impress people with the notion that he has a right to an opinion somewhat superior to "the next man's." The sociologist has never, with a few exceptions, much impressed the historians, the statesmen, or even the politicians. Witness Theodore Roosevelt's joke in getting a labor representative on the Anthracite Coal Commission by "calling him a sociologist." Nobody is sure that he has a real expert when he gets a sociologist—compare the case just cited with one where a chemist or a geologist, say, is specified.

When the Japanese, on a certain occasion, wanted advice about societal policy, they sent to Herbert Spencer for it. And why? Because he had given evidence of knowing something about the way human societies behave. Prejudiced, perhaps, and unhappily involved in trying to make a philosophy—but his writings gave evidence that he had filled his mind with facts and had shown the ability and courage to go with them where they seemed to him to lead. He was no such scientific figure as Darwin, but he managed, nevertheless, really to found a science of society, and so far as he himself was concerned, to leave it respectable in the eyes of historians, statesmen, and others. No one since has superseded him or come anywhere near him in this respect. Too few have been willing to take the time and trouble to get facts and patiently extract their meaning. Cranks of all descriptions, and quacks and mountebanks untold, have since reduced the term which he made respectable to be, in the minds of many sensible people, a byword and a sneering. The heated head and the wet eye have here too often replaced the cool head and the critical and searching eye of the real scientist; the methods of the forum and the pulpit have encroached, "with hideous ruin and combustion," upon those of the study; random yearnings for uplift have taken the place of the intellectual desire to know how things are, and how they can go and cannot go, in the life of society. We are all instructed as to the "rights" of our unsuccessful fellows, and our own "duties" towards them. For, as a student once put it,

> *We* are to blame for the poor man's shame,
> And the burden that bends him low.
> We must take his part, and give him art:
> Burne-Jones, Shaw, d'Annunzio.

This attitude, of which we here have an impressionistic view, becomes exceedingly tiresome in its iteration. Views as to betterment have waited on desire or whim, not on knowledge. Large and vague terms, such as "the social problem," "the social process," have sprung into a pompous prominence.

Is it a wonder that some people who see the great benefit to be derived from a really scientific study of society become somewhat bitter at the repudiation of those methods of patient research and modest conclusion which have taken us so far in the natural sciences? The evolution of a new science cannot be hastened. The Darwin of sociology is yet afar off. There is as yet not nearly enough of a body of knowledge about human society for such an one to correlate, organize, and unify. But it is nevertheless upon the laws that emerge from the patient study of such accumulations that any impressive propositions for social "reform" must wait. Historians, although they have not been interested, it is true, in certain classes of data indispensable to sociology, have yet assembled and arranged a notable set of social facts and studies. And how do they view the sociologist? Chiefly as one ignorant of history or ready to adopt any superficial misinterpretation of it that suits his pet theory. Anthropologists and ethnologists hold something the same attitude towards most sociologists. That the criticisms of historians and others, passed upon sociology, are often narrow and picayune, should not obscure the fact that, on the whole, sociologists are not well informed in what must be their fundamentals if they are going to develop a real science and not a

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

series of shaky and short-lived generalizations about things right around them.

II.

One possible conviction about sociology is, then, that it had better not try to settle everything just yet, but that it should devote itself with patience to the collection, sifting, and verification of evidence. That it should try to get itself a perspective or background for its progress-policies, and thus work up among its votaries, to support its practice, some sort of reassuring unanimity of definition and theory, like that, for example, of a set of chemists. It is impossible to see any other way in which it can justify itself or prove itself to be a real science. Other scientists, and the layman as well, see sociologists in possession of no accepted body of principle. Sociologists seem, indeed, more interested in comparing guesses and aspirations about current problems than in the more arduous task of finding out how things are and have become. Often they might as well be discussing evidence of design in the universe, or determining how many angels can dance on a needle's point. A certain keen observer has remarked that, when scientists get together to hear each other's papers, the assumption seems to be that the investigator is right, and every one wants to understand and appropriate his results; but that, with a similar group of philosophers, the assumption is that the expositor is wrong, and every one is intent upon discovering and showing up his error. The presence of a good body of verifiable fact in the one case, and its absence in the other, go a long way towards accounting for this contrast. If sociology is to be a philosophy, we may as well withdraw all we have said about unanimity and scientific method; but it is called a science by its votaries, and we have been discussing it as such. A science of society is needed just as much as it was at the time when Spencer wrote his chapter on that need, or when Comte saw the necessity of passing from the metaphysical to the positive stage. Philosophies of society we have had, though the need for them was not a crying one, for many ages; it is not for such that we are concerned.

What the sociologist who is sensitive about the standing of his science longs for at the present time is a set of unpretentious, but thorough, studies which he can submit without embarrassment or apology to the scrutiny of colleagues in other branches who know and practice rigorous scientific method. Instead of that he sees the book-lists deluged with products of a high degree of pretentiousness, marking out extensive claims with but feeble evidence of having worked the same; empirical programmes with little or no historical or evolutionary background; books that convince his colleagues that sociology is a study to be pursued in divinity schools rather than in colleges or graduate schools. It is no wonder that he calls out for distance and detachment when he sees advocates of any sort of social "movement" or "cause" denominating themselves sociologists, and that without challenge from sociologists, but rather under recognition by them.

III.

Critics of current sociology have been scolded for objecting to "tentative" programmes and theories. The word might have been chosen with less considerateness. But the word does not matter, for the examples cited in the objectionable reviews show that the reference is to hesitating, faltering, wavering, vacillating, or vapid hypotheses and programmes rather than to "cautious" ones. It is better, if we are to have the austerity of scientific method, not to set forth any hypothesis at all unless we are moderately certain about it. A scientist ought to try to work out most of his "probably's" and "possibly's" for himself, instead of always putting a wearisome and unproductive list of them up to his reader. There must be a number of uncertainties in every part of human destiny; but the function of science is not to re-state them all, but to get rid of one or more of them. If there are too many of these "tentative" things, it shows that the field under survey is too large for present powers of occupation. And it is not one of the least irritating things about sociologists that they are ever and anon drawing up "tentative" plans for a grandiose edifice, and then setting other people to make their bricks instead of getting down into the clay-pits and the kiln themselves. Sociology will not become the "science of sciences," if ever, until it demonstrates that it is really a work-a-day science itself.

Critics are criticised, finally, as regards their attitude towards sociology, on the ground that they lend support to those who advocate *laissez-faire* and "scoff at progress promoted by effort." These are unconsidered expressions. No writer of sanity, let alone ability, ever scoffed at progress. But it is easy to become impatient at the self-constituted prophets of progress and at their vaticinations, especially if they pretend, upon a very slight visible equipment, to be scientists. Sentimentalists and utopia-makers are fond of laying claim to that title, especially in the field of sociology; and then, when their ill-balanced schemes of goodwill are criticised, they complain that progress is sneered at. No one scoffs at the idea of progress in invention; but he may grow a-weary of the persons who buttonhole him to tell him of their persistently recurrent visions of attaining it through perpetual-motion machines. Scoffing at progress promoted by effort and scoffing at the current prosperity-policies are two very different matters. Opposing social betterment and opposing current programmes of social betterment are not one and the same thing; only an imbecile does the former, but most sensible men have had to do so much of the latter that they are grown wary and have to be shown. Vague aspiration towards progress, let the intentions be what they will, is, scientifically considered, at a discount. But the man who scoffs at progress is a man of straw.

As for *laissez-faire*, any person with common-sense prefers it, at its worst, to uncertain and inexpert tinkering and meddling, where, at best, success will be due to luck. But it is a favorite dummy to knock about, for those who must be "doing something." One not untenable position in this matter is derivable from the earlier part of this article. "*Laissez-faire*," used by anybody who has a right to an opinion, does not mean "let slide"; it means what the "Hands Off" sign on complicated and swiftly moving machinery stands for. It is not put there to restrain the qualified machinist, but to keep off the meddling incompetent. What we need in sociology, says Sumner, "confused as it is by old theories and new, by old traditions and new fashions, by old creeds and new philosophies, is a scientific method which shall descend to a cold, clear examination of facts and build up inductions which shall have positive value. . . . If we can trace the evolution of society from its germ up to its present highest forms, we may hope to identify the forces which are at work in it and to determine their laws. We can disabuse our minds of arbitrary codes and traditions and learn to regard society as a growth under law. We may then hope to understand what we see about us, and if remedies are either desirable or necessary, we shall stand some chance of selecting them intelligently."

There might, perhaps, be a good deal more to say about this matter of sociology and science. But as for the title of sociology to the rank of a science, that waits, I repeat, upon such demonstration as other recognized sciences have made. There is a progressively increasing need for a science of society such as cannot fail presently to call a real one forth. Several solid contributions towards such a science appear every year. No right-minded critic wants to ignore or belittle the humblest of these, but to protest, rather, against their being overwhelmed and smothered by the sheer bulk of the other kind of thing. It is the much chaff amidst which this wheat is lost that fills the nostrils and soul of the winnower respectively with dust and dejection. Perhaps the present keen, but somewhat hurried and ill-considered, interest in social projects—even though it may be sardonically compared to the engrossment of aforetime in astrology and alchemy—may be utilized to promote the development of a science of society.

One thing, however, is sure: unless sociologists give up complaisantly patting each other on the back for obviously unscientific performances; unless they learn to separate the professional from the personal, so that each one can speak his mind without eliciting dire suspicions or woful plaints; they stand but small chance of doing what any and every right-minded man among them wants most to do, viz., to develop a science

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

whose application to the affairs of society may bring about a well-being towards which the race has been fumbling and groping from the beginning. Fumbling, groping, guessing, dreaming, and exhorting about social things are nothing new; they deserve no special designation ending in "-ology." They are perfectly normal in the inchoate stage of any discipline. But at the present age and stage, with the example of several other sciences before us, and with the pioneer work of Spencer already several decades back in history, it is time to settle down to a scientific temper and method of procedure, and consistently to decry any other.

Notes from the Capital

THE SOLITARY SOCIALIST.

Meyer Lonesome is the way irreverent commentators parody the name of the one Socialist in Congress, because he votes so often alone while his opponents are lining up in squads. Usually this is due to his being a pacifist in a houseful of warriors.

Once he was astonished to find himself half of a minority of two who stood out against a military measure which commanded the approval of the rest of the Representatives; but this phenomenon of unpopular fellowship was explained when it was discovered that, though he had voted in the negative because he regarded the proposal as too aggressive, the other man's objection was based on its not being aggressive enough!

Probably most persons who read about Meyer London as the Member from New York city who carries the great Jewish district of the East Side in his pocket picture him in their minds as a large, impressive, burly ruler of men. No fancy could be further from the fact. There is nothing in his appearance which could lure the ordinary observer into spending a second glance on him. In this respect he differs utterly from his co-religionist and close friend Brandeis, who wears a stamp of distinction that would be recognized anywhere. London is short, wiry rather than stocky in build, light in his general color-tone, and uncommanding in gait and carriage. His voice is neither strong nor flexible. It would be hard to conceive of him, or any man of his type, as a popular idol; yet as you study him he grows into a figure of more importance. There is a steel-like, immovable resolution behind the serious expression of his eye, which makes you feel that if you came face to face with him in a struggle, it would continue till one of you was finished and carried off. It may be that very look which has done so much to give force to his work in the field of conciliation; for there is no power for peace half so effective as the sense on your adversary's part, before negotiations begin, that it will do him no good to stir up your hostility.

It comes into play when London is pitted against a fellow like Gompers, who is at swords' points with him on most of the measures in which Labor—spelled with a capital initial—is interested. Does London advocate Government insurance against old age, invalidism, non-employment, and so on, Gompers opposes it on the ground that it savors unwholesomely of pauperism. If London wishes to have the United States welcome the oppressed of the world to her free shores regardless of their ability to read and write, and with a benevolent rather than a gainful purpose, Gompers would keep a watchful eye out for what the American laborer might suffer from increased competition. When London accuses Gompers of bullying Congress into doing what he wishes done for the benefit of the American Federation of Labor, Gompers resents the imputation with a fierceness he could hardly make more intense against the most tyrannical of plutocrats. One of these days, however, it would not be surprising to see the two leaders working side by side, their peaceful collaboration having been brought about by London's tireless tenacity and skill at fence, not by his surrender at any stage.

Did any one ever see London indulge in a hearty laugh, like that in which most men seek relief when their spirits are overburdened? I doubt it. All the lines which have gradually seamed his face during his forty-five years of life are lines of determination and pugnacity rather than of good nature. He comes of a revolutionary stock, his father having quitted Southern Russia about 1884 to escape from the intolerable conditions under which he was doomed to live there because of his race and religion, and carried his insurgent ideals to New York, where he could vent them freely through a little journal he started on the East Side. At eighteen, Meyer followed. By diligence and self-sacrifice he had contrived to pick up a fair education, and for some time had been supporting himself by tutoring his less industrious mates. But the course of the Russian Government in practically restricting schooling for Jewish children to a fraction of their number had angered him to the point of emigration. In New York he worked first as a printer, then as a cigarmaker, and then as an assistant in a library, where the hours were sufficiently easy to enable him to read law and to make an analytical study of oratory.

His first retainer as an attorney was for the defence in a case growing out of a labor strike. That made him a leader in the warfare against "wage slavery," and thus he became interested in Socialism. Fortunately, he was not bitten with the notion that violence offered the best way out of our industrial ills, but became an advocate of co-operation between a corps of employers in a trade and a corps of employees, as illustrated in the "protocol" which ended the garment-workers' strike of 1910.

Notwithstanding his study of oratory as an art, London has taken no rank as a debater in Congress. He walks about too much while making a speech, and the didactic style of address which suits very well on an East Side platform is a poor vehicle for arguments offered on the floor of the House. His constituents—not only the people of his district, but Socialists everywhere who feel that, as their sole exponent under the Capitol dome, he is bound to heed their desires—flood his mail with demands that he speak on this, that, and the other subject; so he has to take advantage of the informality of the Committee of the Whole to talk about child labor during the consideration of an Army bill, or exploit the minimum wage under cover of a debate on a post-office appropriation.

TATTLER.

American Neglect of American Literature

By PERCY H. BOYNTON.

When Prof. Georg Brandes visited the United States in the spring of 1912, he was quoted as saying a fortnight after he landed that he did not propose to be interviewed any more about the works of Emerson, Whitman, and Poe, because nobody over here had read them. He was not quoted as expressing any wonder at this, but simply as stating what he had observed. If he did wonder—if perhaps he inquired how it was possible for the educated American to know so little about the best of American literature—his wonder doubtless grew when he found that an American can go through the forms of being educated without ever hearing of American literature after entrance to high school, and that however much he may care to, it is rarely possible for him to indulge in any intensive study of his native literature under school, college, or even university auspices. If Professor Brandes was as wide-awake as usual, and went on to ask why this surprising fact could be, it is doubtful if he received a good offhand explanation.

The reason is that to answer such a question a good apologist must start, like Lowell's organist,

> Beginning doubtfully and far away,

and when he has built the bridge from a far past he must, if he is candid, admit that there is no valid defence for the present and content himself with simply explaining. He must consider two persistent and mutually provocative facts in American life: that American culture has always been timidly self-conscious, and that American literature has always been neglected in the American college. He must recognize that the college is the product of American intellectual tradition and also the chief determinant of America's intellectual bias in the year after next; and he must, therefore, explain what the college has included in the course of study and what it has left out, by an account of college evolution and of community thinking.

I.

Within the college the present status of American literature quite evidently rests on a piece of natural rather than directed development. It can best be explained in its disjunction with the status of American history, for this subject receives quite all the attention it deserves. Somenow or other, we may indolently say—although the Bancroft-Parkman-Prescott tradition is at the basis of it—the leadership in the study of history on this side of the Atlantic is very largely in the hands of scholars in the American field. In consequence, the story of the United States is well and abundantly expounded, and college graduates in large numbers carry away that partial and partially

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

useful knowledge which comes from the exclusive study of political, economic, and military annals. Yet because of the influence of German methods of scholarship, the leadership in the study of literature on this side of the Atlantic is rightfully enough in the hands of pre-Shakespearean scholars. As a consequence, again, English literature is variously presented, but—perhaps all unconsciously—the earlier periods are stressed as most worthy of study, the best maturing scholarship is diverted towards them, and American literature is either slighted or explicitly discredited.

Thus in graduate instruction the study of special American schools, special tendencies, and special genera has been attempted up to this time only in isolated cases. Nevertheless, the material is at hand. The older libraries, through mere automatic accumulation, have acquired great stores of unstudied material; and a certain few collections of the richest interest lie serenely undisturbed by the investigator. In writing the history of our country—even the ostensibly literary history—the social satires and the secondary fiction have been almost as completely forgotten by the historians as by the general public. Still the colleges do not seize their opportunity. Not one eminent university man in the country to-day has devoted his career to studying or teaching the literary history of America.

The immediate consequences of this are the obvious ones on which Professor Brandes remarked. In the secondary schools American authors are read to a considerable degree, though decreasingly as college entrance examinations loom up as the determining influence. Yet the school children have to be taught American literature out of the fulness of the heart rather than out of the fulness of the mind, for the teachers have seldom enjoyed any special training. Among adults the average receptive college graduates who are going into business or into professions other than teaching—even the ones with so-called literary inclinations—very rarely discover for themselves the drift of national thought as it might have been presented in historical courses. Every other literature but our own is so studied, but it has never been the fashion for educated Americans to take American literature seriously. It hasn't been done in the best academic circles.

II.

Academic inertia, however, is not the only factor in the equation. A much more important one is the academic timidity which reflects the mind of the country. The American reading public has all along failed to appreciate that even though we are fortunate in the enormous heritage which a sharing in English speech and English feeling has given us, we have also an immediate possession, not by heritage, but by the right of eminent domain; that the literature which is nearest us is ours to understand and build upon; that it expresses us as no literature from across the seas can do; that a knowledge of ourselves depends upon an intimate acquaintance with the American stock quite as much as on an analysis of the English soil from which it sprang.

The deference of the American intellect and the American college is well rooted in history. Cambridge University furnished the New England tradition for the colonial centuries. With the development of a national consciousness commencement speakers began to orate loosely about the "rising glories of America." For a generous half-century, from Freneau to Longfellow, aspiring young America looked to itself for the new poets and prophets of the New World. This was a natural display of exaggerated provincialism; and a natural feature of it was that all the time the aspirants were most anxiously listening for any applause that might come over from London. No wonder that in those early stages young America was superficially imitative of the popular English models; no wonder Dennett said of Fitz-Greene Halleck what he might have said of any other Knickerbocker—that it was hard for him to forget himself, for "when he forgot himself he had to forget so many people." From 1820 on, Irving, Cooper, Bryant, and their followers protested more and more frequently at a certain condescension in foreigners to which Lowell addressed himself in his essay of 1865. Yet all of these men, and cultured America as a whole, played up to this condescension and encouraged it by evidently expecting it—stimulated it by the peevish feebleness of their protests. Lowell himself was always apologetic, always hoping to gain confidence in his countrymen. Charles Eliot Norton was deferent towards all things British or European and felt for the crudities of American life a distress which was only a refinement upon the snobbishness of the Effinghams in Cooper's "Homeward Bound" and "Home as Found."

The fact is that the refined American of the mid-nineteenth century was afraid to contemplate the incarnation of America. He knew that Uncle Sam was too mature for it; he feared that it was like Tom Sawyer; he did what he could to mould it into the image of Little Lord Fauntleroy. And he apologized for Whitman. When Mark Twain visited William Dean Howells in Cambridge in 1871 they were both young sojourners from what was to Cambridge an undiscriminated West. Young Mr. Clemens didn't care at all, and young Mr. Howells didn't care so far as he himself was concerned, but he cared a great deal in behalf of his friend, who was so incorrigibly Western. And in recording his solicitude he recorded a striking fact of that generation: that American culture was afraid even of American phenomena which Europe approved. "I did not care," said Mr. Howells of Mr. Clemens, "to expose him to the critical edge of that Cambridge acquaintance which might not have appreciated him at, say, his transatlantic value."

III.

Whatever could once have been said in defence of such a situation has now lost its virtue. For in spite of the increasingly urgent need that America should come to some understanding of herself, the colleges have done no more than before the Spanish War to contribute to it. They have taught formal American history very well; they may have taught economics better; but they have if anything lost ground in their treatment of the literature. No one in this century has surpassed the work in the last, of Tyler and Richardson in general history, or equalled the authors of the leading volumes in the American Men of Letters series.

All of which has become a matter of no small importance in American life. For we have reached the point where, as a community, we must at last be able to think clearly in terms of international relations, and where as a first step towards any clarity of thought we must have some clear and unified approximation not merely as to our "manifest destiny," but as to what we are and what the American concept of the state should be. And these findings, if they are to amount to anything at all, must be based on a knowledge of the course of American thought as related to the thought of the world. The army and navy, the Legislatures, and the market—these are, after all, only symptoms. The vital points are what the nation has been thinking and what it has been failing to think.

Considered in this light, American literature makes an imperative claim on the national attention. Silas Pettijohn may very properly feel his own shortcomings in the presence of Shakespeare, but it is a duty as well as a right of Silas Pettijohn to know his own mind. This is something that America has yet to learn. There need be no question for the self-derogatory American as to the comparative merits of Cooper and Scott, Longfellow and Tennyson, Emerson and Carlyle; but there should be much question as to what Cooper and Irving meant three generations ago, why Willis thrived and Poe languished, what the Transcendentalists signified, how vital was the contribution of Cambridge to the life of the nation, where Whitman triumphed and how he failed, and who took up the torch when the elders laid it down.

Out of an educational policy which will recognize this need, a policy extended to the leading universities and colleges, and persisted in for years, there ought to come two contrasting results. One is that through an acquaintance with our native writers the educated American will both enrich and modify his feeling for American history. In the past he has condemned much of our literature because it was too imitative, and discredited the rest because it was not imitative enough, largely for the reason that he was not really familiar with either the exotic or the indigenous parts of it. Yet in them together are the secret and the riches of our national tradition and character. It cannot be too emphatically stated that the intrinsic value of American literature

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

must to American students be a matter of secondary importance. What the public has wanted in any generation is enormously significant as a question of literary history. If our spokesmen have been great, well and good. If they have been little, it is for us to understand their littleness, for in them the national character has for the moment been expressed. What Professor Shorey wrote some years ago of American scholarship was directly—if not then explicitly—to this point: "The superior culture of Oxford or Paris . . . is due to the background of the national tradition in language and literature, *and the controlling consciousness of the tradition* in the minds of teachers and taught." Deliberately to train our best group of thinkers in total disregard of the most essentially national aspect of this tradition is to assume that the needs of the student in the United States are identical with those of the student in the British Isles or in Canada or in Australia.

Under "the controlling consciousness of this tradition" will come the further result that through the schools—already in this respect more enlightened than the colleges, because less self-conscious—the acquaintanceship of the children with the American classics will become more intelligent in recognition of their native quality. Not one in a hundred now could comment thus to any purpose on "Maud Muller," or "Snow-Bound," or "The Bridge," or even "The Last of the Mohicans." To foster in a whole generation some clear recognition of other qualities in America than its bigness, and of other distinctions between the past and the present than that they are far apart, is to contribute towards the consciousness of a national individuality which is the first essential of national life. Such a task would be needful enough if America were peopled with native Americans. With the population as it is, such education is enormously more important than in any other land; and yet it can be attempted only when the teachers of English are trained to know the spirit and content of American letters.

I do not want to damage the case by overstating it. There has already been a great deal of profitable study of American literature, the fruits of which have often been put into print. Several well-known college teachers offer occasional survey courses, and a few younger men are doing a more serious kind of work. But in the colleges American literature has no real footing in comparison with the footing of either American history or English literature. Just now, however, the American periodicals addressed to thoughtful people are telling us in issue after issue that we must put our minds upon ourselves, that we must look to our past, and to our present, and then intelligently to our future. We who read these periodicals admit the charge gravely—and then read more such articles. If we are deeply affected, we remark that somebody ought to do something about it. We may go on in this course for years without getting anywhere, if this is all we do. The mind of the nation cannot be generally influenced by the articles in a few weeklies or monthlies of small circulation. Some other machinery must be set in motion—machinery which is continuously operative among the millions; of course, the educational system of the country. This system is already doing much, but one among many more things it can do is better to teach our national literature as an index of the national mind; and the next step in any real progress must be taken by the colleges.

Literature

DEWEY'S PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION.

Democracy and Education. By John Dewey. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.40 net.

The book before us is a notable contribution to the philosophy of education. In the flood of modern educational literature it would be difficult to find another work in which the theory of education attains, by the depth and breadth of its thought, the dimensions of a philosophy. The book is more than an educational treatise. The student, and especially the teacher, of philosophy will find in it a much-needed statement of the writer's general philosophy, bringing together his views in education, psychology, theory of knowledge, ethics, and social theory. To us it seems that the presentation is much clearer and more definite than that of the writer's philosophical papers, which have not seldom seemed baffling and evasive. Professor Dewey develops his argument skilfully by the repetition of a single philosophical conception through a series of antitheses, such as information and discipline, experience and thinking, subject-matter and method, labor and leisure, utility and culture, nature and mind, society and the individual; and if at the end we do not know where he stands, we know, at least, where he intends to stand. Meanwhile, through the multiplication of aspects, we have learned to appreciate the complexity of the problem.

And perhaps it is wrong to expect a pragmatic philosopher (Mr. Dewey prefers the term "experimentalist") to "stand" anywhere. His business is rather to move. Professor Dewey's method consists in placing before us the traditional antitheses—mind and nature, culture and utility, the individual and society—and then, from the serenity of a higher point of view (which introduces a strange element of absolutism into an experimentalist philosophy), in showing us that the antithesis is meaningless, explaining at the same time how far each side has arrived at "the truth." To the reader unfamiliar with the method, the result may be bewildering. For example, after a general condemnation of all that we are accustomed to call "culture," we expect to find the writer a crass utilitarian, even a vocationist. Not so, however. The fundamental fact underlying all antitheses—the pragmatist's absolute, we might call it—is "the activity." The world, in brief, is a movement; yet not a wholly untroubled movement. At every stage of the process the movement forward is impeded by older movements which have now congealed into blind habits and institutions, and all the antitheses mentioned are conflicts between the old and the new. Strictly speaking, however, the opposing terms are merely "functions" in a dynamic process. (A blessed word is that word "dynamic.") To treat them as substantive entities is to make a false separation of things not really separate, based upon a "static" point of view. Between *functions*, such as mind and nature, culture and utility, there should be no real conflict. Ideally, work should be as delightful as play, and play as productive as work. Professor Dewey would therefore resent the imputation of utilitarianism. In his hands pragmatism is an artistic view of life.

It would be impossible within the space of this review to do justice to the argument by which these opposite functions are harmonized. That we are dealing with connected terms within a larger whole may fairly be admitted. On the other hand, it seems that in Professor Dewey's scheme of harmony the balance is far from even. At the basis of his theory of education lies his theory of social relations. Finding a congenial social ideal in the Platonic commonwealth, he nevertheless condemns Plato for his separation of men into rigid classes and for his failure to provide for the variety and uniqueness of individuals. Roussellian individualism, however, he justly criticises for the assumption that the individual can realize himself in social isolation. Education he holds to be a matter of social adjustment. Well, then, we ask, is the individual to be adjusted to society, or society to the individual? Professor Dewey's theory replies, Both. Or perhaps he would say that the question is meaningless. The individual becomes an individual only in society, and social progress consists precisely in making room for a larger range of individual differences. In a word, between society and the individual no favors are to be shown.

And yet it seems that favors are shown. Apparently, it is not enough that the individual shall understand his fellows, get along with them, and coöperate with them. Emphasis is laid upon "like-mindedness" and upon "shared experience." It is true that the function of the teacher is to stimulate the *self*-activity of the pupil; Professor Dewey lays great stress upon the fact that nothing is effected in education that is not effected by the pupil himself. But at the same time we learn that the end of education is to cultivate in the pupil the emotional attitude of the group, so that his aims shall be their aims. And whatever this may mean, one point seems clear: in the Deweyan social system there is no room for any individual who wishes to lead his own life in the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

privacy of reflective self-consciousness. Privacy is to be regarded as a sinful luxury. Individuals are to remember that, after all, they are only "agencies for revising and transforming previously accepted beliefs." In sum, one is driven to the belief that, in spite of Mr. Dewey's fine defence of individualism, his moral ideal is really that of the "good mixer."

In thus failing to provide for both ends of the social problem, Professor Dewey fails at the same time to solve the educational problem. The child can learn nothing that he does not learn of himself, and therefore nothing that does not, in some sense, appeal to himself; at the same time he must learn to take his place in society. The combination of these statements means that somehow *he* must adjust *himself* to social tradition. How is this adjustment to be effected? Parents and teachers of the older sort were accustomed to assume that they knew better than the child, not only what was good for him, objectively speaking, but what would upon later reflection appeal to him; they were therefore accustomed to assert their wisdom frankly to the child as authoritative. Possibly, they often assumed too much. Professor Dewey, however, resents all "externally imposed ends." He will not so much as whisper to the child that he is being educated (p. 205). Nay, in his democratic enthusiasm for the rights of children, he even falls backward into a sort of mysticism in which he invites us to emulate the superior "social sensitiveness" and "open-mindedness" of children.

Yet he is far from dispensing with direction—of course, if direction were dispensed with, the teacher would be out of a job. He fails to explain to us, however, just how direction is to be made effective without the taint of "externally imposed ends"; and this, of all things, is what we most wish to know. If direction makes no difference in the child's development, it seems that for social adjustment we must depend upon a pre-established harmony between the demands of society and the spontaneous impulses of the child. If direction does make a difference, it is hard to see how it can do so except by some assertion of its own wisdom against the child's impulses—such an assertion is involved in a merely unobtrusive direction of attention. In that case fairness and sincerity would seem to demand that the fact of "imposition" be openly recognized.

The point is worth making clear, because it lies at the heart of the pedagogical attitude of a gifted and original thinker who is exercising a wide influence upon the teachers of the country. It is not a question of unnecessary discipline; nor, perhaps, of discipline for discipline's sake. We must confess to have felt a certain impatience towards the suggestion of William James, that we should do some difficult task every day just for the sake of our moral character. The man, woman, or child who meets his responsibilities faithfully as they come may trust his moral character to take care of itself. And we may agree heartily with Professor Dewey's view that the best discipline is that which comes from doing what one sees to be a clearly important task. But how is the child to be convinced that the task is important? And is the child's sense of importance to be final? Professor Dewey seems not quite ready to assent to this. He is inclined rather to dismiss the question as "meaningless" and "unreal." This, indeed, is the striking feature of his attitude towards all questions, educational, moral, metaphysical. In his view it seems that a foolish race of men is engaged in making mountains out of molehills. It is, therefore, worth noting that, for him as for the rest of us, the mountains still stand.

From the question of the individual and society, through that of interest and discipline, we come to the question of culture and utility. Here we note a similar ambiguity. Shall education be a matter of natural development (culture, interest), or must it train for social efficiency (utility, discipline)? Such questions, according to Professor Dewey, are based again upon a "false separation" of motives. "The opposition of high worth of personality to social efficiency is a product of a feudally organized society with its rigid division of inferior and superior. The latter are supposed to have time and opportunity to develop themselves as human beings; the former are confined to providing external products" (p. 142). This means that in the current distinction between culture and utility we are confronted by an artificial culture and by a falsely narrow conception of utility; and the writer points to the Greeks as a people in whom, within narrow limits, to be sure, culture and utility were harmoniously united. The worst feature of modern industrialism, he tells us, is not that work is ill paid, but that it is devoid of interest.

The criticism seems just. The explanation of the fact illustrates, however, in an interesting way the "social" obsession which underlies all of Professor Dewey's thinking. In his view it appears that all distinctions whatever are "social." Morality is concerned somehow only with the relations of man and man; questions that lie within the life of the individual have no moral significance. If, however, we disregard the social relation and look only at the individual, the "isolated individual," if you please, we shall find the conflict of culture and utility embodied in every purposive act. Crusoe on his island could not have escaped it; for him, too, the question must arise whether he shall make his hut an artistic and complete product, satisfying to the soul, or hasten to make his shelter secure lest by neglect of other considerations he starve. The conflict of culture and utility is not a creation of society, but a condition of life; it is the conflict, present at every stage of evolution though changing in content, between the powers of man and the demands of nature; and since an insatiable humanity places its demands ever a step ahead of nature's supply, we may expect the conflict to be always with us. Doubtless much may be done to mitigate the discord—in educational terms, to base discipline upon natural interest; in moral terms, to mix contentment with progress; but any theory of education which forgets that uninteresting things will have to be done is thinking, not of this world, but of a world that has never existed and never will exist.

And when we come to the concrete issue, it is hard to see that, under the color of a "false separation" of motives, Professor Dewey does not—here as in the social problem—really sacrifice one motive to the other; namely, culture to utility. The motive of education, he tells us, the motive, indeed, of everything, is the furtherance of life. Hence, he is bitterly opposed to "bookishness"; for books represent the past, and the past is dead. Yet he is careful to specify that by life he does not mean merely physical life. Man is not a biological specimen, but a self-conscious agent. Very well, then; shall we not say that the peculiarity of "life," in this sense, is that for the living being the past is *not* dead? Plato, we are given to understand, is to be used for what we may get out of him; but with regard to our contemporaries, having once formed sympathetic relations with them, though merely as the blind result of natural or economic conditions, "it becomes a matter of deliberate effort to sustain and extend them." In other words, moral progress means that sympathetic relations which have developed out of mere business relations become valuable for their own sake, and our fellow, known first as a means, becomes an end, interesting for himself. Why, then, may we not extend the same favor to Plato? It seems, indeed, that this ability to treat Plato as a companion is precisely what we mean by "culture"; and that this possibility of making the past present is at the same time the distinguishing feature of conscious life. Either this, we must say, or "life" is after all only a biological phenomenon.

CURRENT FICTION.

Captain Margaret. By John Masefield. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Did the author of "The Widow in the Bye Street" write this romance with his tongue in his cheek, simply saying to himself that it was good enough for that kind of thing, and not worth bothering too much about, or did he try to do something sincere in its kind—and fail? We do not complain because his characters lack the modest reality of the people next door, or the proud reality art might give them; our grievance is that they do not make us indifferent to reality—or, rather, let us say, furnish us with a satisfying illusion of reality. And the same thing is true of his action. Its substance is not more extravagant and improbable than, in romance, it has the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

right to be, but there is never a moment when we forget that it is extravagant and improbable—here again the illusion of high romance is lacking.

The title itself is merely tricky, for the principal figure is not a woman, but Captain Charles Margaret, retired officer in the King's army. The time is the seventeenth century. Captain Margaret, who has been crossed in love, has obtained a commission as a privateer, and sets out for the Spanish Main by way of Virginia. By an offhand device of Mr. Masefield's, the captain's lady-love and her new husband are set aboard at the last moment. The new husband is a brute, a wastrel, and a forger, and has seized the chance to escape from England and the hangman. It becomes the sacred duty of Captain Margaret, his skipper (an ex-pirate), and another gentleman of the expedition, to conceal from the fair Olivia the character and status of the husband she adores. Of course, she learns the truth eventually, though she is unconscionably dull at such learning. The brute, after turning traitor, dies in his sins among the Spaniards; and Captain Margaret and the fair Olivia come, with rather startling celerity, to a satisfactory understanding. Mr. Masefield does well, no doubt, not to attempt the perilous feat of an archaic style; but he is unnecessarily cavalier in his use of modern slang. He has one favorite trick of manner: the use of periods where dashes would naturally be employed, to surprising effect at times, as in this speech of Olivia's: "You think, Charles. You think, because. Because I'm not very happy. That I shall not notice. But I see. Oh, I see so well. You wish to poison me against Tom. You wish me to think. That. That. Him guilty."

The Imprisoned Splendor. By Angela Morgan. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

There are in this volume seven stories of the inspirational variety, all aiming to be praised for their effect on the reader's *morale*. To our mind, the most original is the practical suggestion, entitled "What Shall We Do with Mother?" Mother, who has generously divided her substance among a family of married children, soon realizes that they find it a burden to support her. Being something of a culinary genius, Mother pluckily takes to domestic science, and becomes a professional success and a celebrity to boot. Properly applied, it seems to us that this idea promises something towards the extermination of the mother-in-law joke, and thereby deserves our gratitude. Somewhat narrower in its application is the lesson taught by the daughter of the Adirondacks who practiced renunciation and effected a consumptive boarder's cure by going herself to fetch his recalcitrant lady-love from her operatic preoccupations in the city. We note that this story opens and closes with the same remarkable sentence—"As she went up the storm-shaken hill, she exulted in the furious crimson of the West."

Drama

FAREWELL PERFORMANCES OF FORBES-ROBERTSON.

It was most fitting that Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson should have brought his career on the American stage to a close with performances in celebration of the Shakespeare tercentenary. It is probable, also, that he could not have chosen an audience more congenial to his special talent than the one which last week witnessed his representation of "Hamlet" on an Elizabethan stage at Sanders Theatre, Cambridge. How far his conception of this character has been modified by his association off and on with the wise men of Harvard, and to what extent the latter have been influenced in their view by his acting, would be hard to say. In any case, "Hamlet," as presented by Forbes-Robertson, gives deep satisfaction to Harvard, as it should satisfy any audience of superior intelligence. So distinctive is his interpretation that since Booth he more than any one else has made this part his own.

While the old controversy still goes on over the right emphasis to be placed upon the various ingredients of Hamlet's character, Sir Johnston has persisted, with gratifying results, in devoting himself mainly to the intellectual side; and so long as the play continues to be known, as is certainly now the case, almost entirely through a reading of the text apart from the stage traditions, this conception is eminently proper. It is above all interesting; it gives to Hamlet's mind the keenness of a Machiavelli, even though by so doing it leaves partially unexplained his inaction in the face of repeated opportunity. Hamlet was "fat," not literally, yet somewhat out of physical condition; Forbes-Robertson is lean and quick-moving. He prevents, however, the inconsistency from disturbing the audience by a continual glow of imagination. The inference is that, though his mind is convinced not only of the truth of the ghost's recital, but also of his own duty to avenge, he is inhibited by a play of fancy which delights in its own virtuosity. Modifying the idea inherent in the title of the drama staged for the King's benefit—"The Mouse Trap"—Forbes-Robertson shows something of the cat's hesitation to destroy its prey. His facial expressions are too mobile to suggest the inhibitions arising from a deep-seated melancholy. His special interpretation also prevents him from being a very devoted lover. Here again it strikes one that the physical hardly receives its due; for the few displays of his true attitude towards Ophelia are in the nature of mental flashes rather than of outbursts of his whole being; they seem, in fact, just a bit theatrical.

Within his limitations—and every conception of Hamlet has had limitations—Forbes-Robertson gives a superb exhibition of acting. For one thing, he furnishes abundant proof—if any were still needed—that the play is nicely adjustable to the stage. Even the long soliloquies, at his hands, become the exquisitely modulated instruments of the actor, and not the rhetorical exercises which many over-modern souls would have us believe that they really are. It is a revelation, for example, to observe how completely the "To be or not to be" passage answers to the mood and gestures required by that particular stage of Hamlet's ordeal, and also how colloquial certain of Hamlet's remarks, such as those to Polonius, may appear under the spell of enlightened acting. As conceived by Shakespeare, Hamlet is manifestly no mere dreamer, or even mainly a dreamer, but a prince in touch with all the business at court, as well as scrupulously courteous where courtesy is due.

Certain other members of Sir Johnston's company deserve credit for similar efforts in interpretation. So it would be hard to imagine a more living type of old man than the Polonius of Ian Robertson. Humorous in his fashion, quizzical, he is made a lovable doddard, possessing an accurate memory of his younger life and right instincts towards it, together with a good-intentioned if maundering concern for contemporary events. Miss Laura Cowie showed clearly that Ophelia, though a pathetic decoy, has also room in which to express individual charm and personality. Even in the scene with the Prince which has been carefully set by her father she is obviously thinking less of the trap than of her own relations with Hamlet, and her despair arises from the realization that there is much amiss with her lover. Little need be said of the other performers. In accordance with tradition, the King, a character whom Shakespeare made truly commanding, was colorless, and, owing to a cut in the scene where he is at prayer, he was robbed of an important trait in his opposition to Hamlet.

For the occasion the stage was ordered in Elizabethan fashion, attendants in the dress of the day being on hand to make the trivial shifts which sufficed for Elizabethan audiences. For its part Cambridge furnished swains who strutted across the stage before the performance, bought oranges of a sprightly Radcliffe girl, and pelted their fellows in the pit with the peel. In the boxes were gallants and ladies of fashion wearing their thin disguises. In only one respect was this celebration seriously disappointing. Whether the acoustics of the theatre were deranged by the special stage or whether the actors lowered their voices unduly to accommodate a small playhouse, it was at all events true that the diction, even of Forbes-Robertson himself, was often unintelligible. In recording Harvard's celebration of the tercentenary, it is fitting here to mention the address given on Sunday of that week by Professor Kittredge, who has done perhaps more than any other scholar in this country to interpret Shakespeare's text and to give students a right understanding of the language of those days. F.

"THE TEMPEST" IN ELIZABETHAN FASHION.

The growing conviction that, to do him and them justice, the plays of Shakespeare ought to be presented as nearly as possible as he wrote them, and in the manner for which they were designed, is rooted in common-sense. To mangle them, to destroy their symmetry, cohesion, and sequence, for the sake of spectacle, is sheer barbarism. It does not follow, however, that such resources of modern stage art as can realize their intent without affecting their integrity or character should not be employed. Such expedients are eminently artistic, legitimate, and commendable, but when they are used, the production is not, of course, in the strict sense, Elizabethan. It may easily be something much better. In

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

some respects this is proved by the current revival of "The Tempest" by the Stage Society in the Century Theatre. Here, upon an approximately correct, if not scientifically exact, reproduction of an Elizabethan stage, with only such changes of scene as can be made by the use of curtains and a few "properties," the whole play is given as written in the space of two hours and a half, and it may be added, upon the whole, with admirable interpretative effect, because the spirit of the piece is preserved by the continuity of the action. To this extent the production is entitled rightfully to be called Shakespearean and Elizabethan. The purely modern attributes of it are to be found in the color, the costumes, the lighting effects, the elemental manifestations, the orchestral accompaniments, pictorial groupings, and so forth, illusive devices utterly unknown to the sixteenth- or seventeenth-century theatre, and, therefore, misrepresentative of it, but nevertheless pleasing and appropriate aids to a materialization of poetic fancies. Shakespeare, in his managerial capacity, undoubtedly would have adopted them if he could. This is the theory, perfectly logical in itself, upon which the Society has acted in the opening storm scenes, where the whole stage becomes the deck of the ship. It is an exceedingly ingenious and, until the probabilities are weighed, plausible solution of a vexed problem, but one that smacks somewhat strongly of modern resourcefulness. The justification of it rests upon its present practicability and its indisputable effectiveness. It fulfils all the obligations of the text, gives ample space for the animated action of the crew, and makes a good picture, but it raises insoluble problems concerning the rigging and masts. The nautical evolutions are more marvellous than any of Prospero's miracles, but in a fairy tale they need not be questioned. It suffices that the scene is thoroughly well done. The later acts, which offer no particular scenic difficulty, are presented—with the exceptions already noted—in a manner which may be accepted as fairly reflecting Elizabethan methods. It is doubtful whether the old stage managers could have used steam—in the vision scene—but that is a minor point which need not be pressed. The general smoothness of the action, the disposition of the characters, and the adroit adaptation of the facilities provided by the outer and inner stage for scenic purposes, are striking proofs of the theatrical divination of Mr. Calvert, the chief director. Also they are a valuable object lesson of the virtual independence of a delicate dramatic fantasy of elaborate pictorial and mechanical apparatus.

This revival is an important step in the right direction, because it shows how modern devices may be made to supplement, without subverting and nullifying, old and vital artistic principles. Shakespeare wrote for the theatre of his time and was bound by its limitations. The structure of his plays is an integral part of them. And dislocation of it is almost invariably as detrimental as unjustifiable. But it is inevitable if his system of plot development is not followed. This, however, may be accomplished without an absolutely servile—and impossible—mimicry of all minor details. The one indispensable condition is reverence for the text, its order, and its interpretation. Omissions may be necessary and judicious, transpositions seldom either one or the other. Here we come to the weak point in the present revival, the inability of the company, as a whole, to give effect to the poetic values of the lines. Most of the elocution, though animated and fluent, was sadly slovenly and prosaic. There seemed to be a general effort on the part of the performers to be modern and "natural," which, in an Elizabethan performance, is a most flagrant anachronism. This remark, of course, does not apply to the comic prose parts, which were very well done. The Stephano of George Hassell was especially good, and the Caliban of Mr. Hampden was rightly spoken and acted. But the poetic passages, as a rule, were delivered without sonority, dignity, rhythm, emphasis, or melody. Cultivated and expressive diction is a prime essential of artistic Shakespearean production.

J. R. T.

"BEAU BRUMMELL."

The revival of Clyde Fitch's play, which Arnold Daly has staged at the Cort Theatre, opened last week with the promise of a considerable measure of success. For the success that the piece had when Richard Mansfield played the part it was entirely dependent on the central figure, which Clyde Fitch apparently evolved out of his inner consciousness and which historically bears a good deal more resemblance to D'Orsay than to Brummell. That, however, does not greatly matter. What does matter is that the impersonator of the rôle should by suggestion prepare us for the revelation of the third act that beneath the lace of the flippant dandy beats the heart of a real man. In this respect Mr. Daly was not successful. On the surface his performance was excellent; tone and gesture were carefully studied, and the exterior of the insolent exquisite was adequately portrayed, but one did not feel that there was anything beneath the surface; Mr. Daly's Beau Brummell would have married Mariana and invented a dozen new waistcoats on the strength of her father's shekels. In the fourth act, where Brummell is starving in shabby lodgings at Calais, Mr. Daly rose to the dramatic opportunity and played with real power and sympathy. His shabby surroundings seemed to invest him with a dignity which, clad in purple and fine linen, he had been unable to achieve.

Other characters in the piece are so subordinate to that of Brummell that the rest of the caste is not of great importance. The Mortimer of Edgar Norton is a good performance, and Herbert Percy is well made up as Sheridan. In other rôles there is a good deal of weakness. Miss Roma June's Mariana is an uninspired characterization; Rowland Buckstone looks and talks like nothing in heaven or earth as Oliver Vincent; Roland Rushton's conception of an eighteenth-century Hebrew is unconvincing, and certainly no amount of sycophancy could have labelled the Prince of Wales, as envisaged by E. J. Ratcliffe, "the first gentleman of Europe."

S. W.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD PLAYERS.

The one striking feature of the latest series of one-act plays offered by the Neighborhood Players is a first production of Lord Dunsany's "A Night at an Inn"—a splendidly finished excursion into the supernatural, in theme not unlike the author's "The Gods of the Mountains." It deals with the inexorable vengeance meted out to a group of sailors who have stolen from an Indian idol the unsurpassed ruby which forms his eye, and fled with it to England, losing at Bombay and Malta comrades caught by the pursuing priests, but still retaining the jewel. In a lonely inn of the south of England the priests overtake them, and are lured to their death one by one through the ingenuity of the sailors' leader, a dilapidated English gentleman who has been driven by his crimes to consort with such riff-raff. But while the priests are still lying warm on the floor the idol himself takes a hand in a wholly unexpected and horrifying way. The acting in this little drama is excellent. The other plays do not require much notice. "With the Current," a translation from the Yiddish of Sholom Asch, is dull and insipid; "The Price of Coal," by Harold Brighouse, is pleasant but undistinguished; and Anton Tchekoff's "A Marriage Proposal" is unambitious farce.

A. N.

Finance

PRESENT AND FUTURE, AS THE MARKETS SEE IT.

A little while ago, prices on the Stock Exchange were breaking because of the imagined possibility that the war would soon be ended, and with it American prosperity. Later, the market broke again, on the possibility that the United States might itself be involved in a state of war with one of the European Powers. After each of these demonstrations by the Stock Exchange came a vigorous recovery, based perhaps less on belief that the predicted events would not come to pass than on a growing conviction

FINANCIAL DIRECTORY

6%
FIRST MORTGAGES
6%

I own and offer for sale, at par and accrued interest, a lot of choice first mortgages, each

Secured by improved real estate in Kansas City, Mo., worth at least twice the amount of loan.

Ultra conservative valuations by our own expert appraisers.

Principal notes accompanying mortgages identified as original by County Recorder of Deeds.

Title Guarantee policy, with seal of genuineness, issued by Kansas City Title & Trust Co., accompanies each mortgage.

Loans mature in three to five years. Interest payable semi-annually.

Correspondence invited.

ARTHUR FELS
Mortgage Banker
N. Y. Life Bldg., Kansas City, Mo.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the strength of our own economic position, independently of these other considerations. The upward movement of prices was in fact most vigorous after the President's declaration of April 19 had been for a week in the hands of the German Government.

Neither at the time of the "peace rumors" nor at the time of the "war rumors" were there visible signs of alarm by the investing public. If their buying slackened, they at least did not begin to sell in quantity. This was all the more striking from the fact that some of the signs of boundless prosperity, which gave so extraordinary an aspect to the last half of 1915, did not continue to contribute to the growth of financial enthusiasm.

It had become evident that the wheat crop of 1916 would be much smaller than the two preceding war harvests. The spectacular flow of gold from Europe to the United States ceased. Surplus reserves of the New York banks no longer broke all records of the market's history. There remained the unprecedented export trade; the railway earnings, still wholly unmatched for any corresponding month; the "high-record" monthly bank clearings, showing the largest actual volume of business ever witnessed in this country, and the earnings of the steel trade, 30 per cent. beyond the highest figures reached in the years before the war. Yet these were effect as much as cause, and the question became rather general, whether we should not presently see a movement of reaction in these directions also.

That the recent extraordinary achievements in financial and industrial "record-breaking" could go on indefinitely, no one has seriously imagined. It was as reasonably sure that net earnings of sixty million dollars for a Steel Corporation quarter, billion-bushel American wheat crops, and monthly export surpluses of $215,000,000 in the country's foreign trade would presently be matters of past history, as it was that annual gold imports of $451,000,000 and autumn surplus bank reserves of $224,000,000 could not continue. The distinctly more important question, when considering either the inevitable change in such directions or the possibility of grave events in international politics, has all along been the question whether the country as a whole was or was not, in its own financial undertakings, assuming the unprecedented conditions to be permanent.

Had this actually been the trend of American finance and business during the twelve-month past, the ground just now ahead of us would be full of pitfalls. If the maximum trade and profits of that period had been capitalized, so to speak, on the financial markets (as they were in 1901), then any change in prevalent conditions would bring the whole financial situation to a dangerous crisis. But all observant people are aware that this is exactly what has not happened. With all the immense and fully justified enthusiasm over the great economic advantages which circumstances threw into the lap of the United States, our people have at no time lost consideration of the abnormal and temporary character of at least a part of them.

At no time has the illusion of 1901, that old principles of finance and economic experience were no longer applicable to the United States, held any control over the American financial mind. On the contrary, beginning in 1914 with a very general belief that the war could bring nothing but financial misfortune to this country, the equally prevalent attitude when returning prosperity had surpassed the widest expectations was one of warning at the uncertainties of an absolutely unknown future, particularly after the European war.

What has been perhaps the most noteworthy fact of all is the presence of this caution and conservatism in the very industries which might most readily have been pardoned for losing their heads in the shower of sudden profits. As a matter of fact, it is in the steel and metal trades—perhaps the largest direct industrial beneficiaries of the war—that one has encountered all along the most serious preaching of preparation for whatever of changed conditions the future might have in hand for them.

These are not the underlying influences which create a precarious and vulnerable financial situation. They have an even more interesting bearing on the immediate and longer future, when it is also recognized that the spirit of caution arises in no respect from doubt or misgiving as to the soundness of the country's real position. It is not least of all on the Stock Exchange, where persistent financial optimism has prevailed even when extravagant speculation was severely discountenanced, that the reflection may be found, both of the ruling conservatism and of the basic confidence which prevail.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Dostoevsky, F. A Raw Youth. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Garland, H. They of the High Trails. Harper. $1.35 net.
Gibbon, J. M. Hearts and Faces. Lane. $1.35 net.
Hopkins, W. J. Those Gillespies. Houghton Mifflin. $1.35 net.
Howells, W. D. The Daughter of the Storage. Harper. $1.35 net.
Richmond, G. S. Under the Country Sky. Doubleday, Page. $1.25 net.
Williams, J. L. Remating Time. Scribner. 50 cents net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Clapp, E. J. The Port of Boston. Yale Univ. Press. $2.50 net.
Evjen, J. O. Scandinavian Immigrants. Holter Pub. Co. $2.50.
Fowler, W. W. Virgil's Gathering of the Clans. London: Blackwell. 3s. 6d. net.
Gladden, W. The Forks of the Road. Macmillan. 50 cents net.
Herrick, R. The Conscript Mother. Scribner. 50 cents net.
Kohler, K. Hebrew Union College and Other Addresses. Cincinnati, O.: Ark Pub. Co.
Les Œuvres de Guiot de Provins. Edited by J. Orr. Longmans, Green. $3 net.
Proceedings of the Wisconsin State Historical Society, 36th Annual Meeting. Madison: By the Society.
Repplier, A. Counter-Currents. Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Schultz, J. W. Blackfeet Tales of Glacier National Park. Houghton Mifflin. $2 net.
Stories of H. C. Bunner. First and Second series. Scribner. $1.25 net each.
The Tragedy of King Richard II. London: Bernard Quaritch. 15s. net.
Thoreau, H. D. Canoeing in the Wilderness. Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.
Vaile, P. A. The New Golf. Dutton. $2 net.
Yeats, W. B. Reveries over Childhood and Youth. Macmillan. $2 net.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Devotions from Ancient and Mediaeval Sources. Translated by C. Plummer. Longmans, Green.
Dwight H. P. The Centennial History of the American Bible Society. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2 set.
Ingram, A. F. W. The Church in Time of War. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co. $1 net.
Walpole, G. H. S. This Time and its Interpretation. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co. $1 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Bishop, J. B. Presidential Nominations and Elections. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Brown, H. G. Transportation Rates and Their Regulation. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Hemenway, H. B. American Public Health Protection. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.25 net.
Scroggs, W. O. Filibusters and Financiers. Macmillan. $2.50 net.
Sellars, R. W. The Next Step in Democracy. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Taft, W. H. The Presidency. Scribner. $1 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Bradford, G. Union Portraits. Houghton Mifflin. $1.50 net.
Davis, R. H. With the French in France and Salonika. Scribner. $1 net.
Dickinson, G. L. The European Anarchy. Macmillan. $1 net.
Fife, R. H. The German Empire Between Two Wars. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Gulliver, L. Daniel Boone. (True Stories of Great Americans.) Macmillan. 50 cents net.
Kalaw, M. M. The Case for the Filipinos. Century. $1.50 net.
L'Italie et la Guerre. Paris: Librairie Armand Colin.
Millioud, M. The Ruling Caste and Frenzied Trade in Germany. Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Morgan, J. H. Leaves from a Field Note-Book. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Reed, J., and Robinson, B. The War in Eastern Europe. Scribner. $2 net.
Rinaker, C. Thomas Warton: A Biographical and Critical Study. University of Illinois. $1.
Seymour, C. The Diplomatic Background of the War. $2 net.

POETRY.

Foulke, W. D. Lyrics of War and Peace. Bobbs-Merrill. $1 net.
Mackaye, P. Poems and Plays. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2 a volume. $3.50 net set.

SCIENCE.

Hudson, W. H. Birds and Man. A. A. Knopf. $2.25 net.
Journal of Genetics. Edited by W. Bateson and R. C. Punnett. Cambridge University Press. 10s. net.
MacLevy, M. Tobacco Habit Easily Conquered. Albro Society.
Quackenbos, J. D. Body and Spirit. Harper. $1.50 net.

ART.

Symons, A. Studies in Seven Arts. Dutton. $2.50 net.

TEXTBOOKS.

Bacon, P. V. A New German Grammar for Beginners. Allyn & Bacon.
Gronow, A. T. Geschichte und Sage. Boston: Ginn. 90 cents.
Herrick, C. T. A-B-C of Cooking. Harper. 50 cents net.
Sanders, F. W. The Reorganization of Our Schools. Boston: The Palmer Co.
The Young and Field Literary Readers. Book Two. Boston: Ginn. 40 cents.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Nation

EDUCATIONAL SUPPLEMENT SECTION

TABLE OF CONTENTS:

EDUCATIONAL THEORY 485
THE CLASSICS:
Greek 486
Latin 487
ENGLISH:
Selected Texts 488
For Younger Readers 489
Rhetoric and Composition 490
Methods 491
MODERN LANGUAGES:
French 491
German 491
Italian 493
Spanish 493
Portuguese 493
Russian 493
Scandinavian 494
Some African Dialects 494
Scotch Dialect 495
HISTORY:
Ancient and Mediæval 495
American 496
South Africa 496
The War 496
For Children 497
ECONOMICS 497
SOCIOLOGY 499
PSYCHOLOGY 499
THEOLOGY AND RELIGION 499
SCIENCE:
Mathematics 500
Elementary and Popular 501
Chemistry 501
Physics 502
Botany 503
Geology 503
Biology 503
Geography 504

REVIEWS

AN EXAMINATION OF THE TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED SINCE LAST AUTUMN AND OF CERTAIN OTHER WORKS BEARING ON EDUCATION.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

One reason why the reading of pedagogical literature is so disturbing to self-respect is that the average work on education is written in a tone of condescension and in a style of excessive simplicity which imply that the reader is intellectually incompetent. Prof. Ernest Carroll Moore's "What Is Education?" (Ginn; $1.25) suggests this reflection. Though the book is clearly and vigorously written, and bears the evidence of a wide reading and of some philosophy, one can hardly conceive that a work issuing from another department of Harvard University would be written in precisely the same style. Professor Moore's presentation of educational theory belongs to the cruder forms of pragmatism; it is a less reflective and more assertive edition of the Deweyan theory. According to Professor Moore, education is "the process of using one's mind in socially profitable ways." The precise denotation of "socially profitable" is left somewhat indefinite. At times it seems to extend to the comprehension of "universal points of view"—from which we may infer that possibly there are no socially unprofitable ways—but for the most it seems that socially profitable ways are confined to the sternly practical and bounded in their widest scope by the uses of "citizenship." One thing is certain, however: they are wholly repugnant to any love of knowledge; especially when knowledge is described as information; and most of all when it takes the form of literature and is printed in books. It would be irrelevant to object that literature is a revelation of life, or that through books we obtain the most distinctively "social" profit of personal intimacy with the best and greatest of our fellows. In Mr. Moore's view, society is not a communion of minds, but a business organization. The printing of books he regards, therefore, as an invention of the devil for the preservation of useless tradition. "Our social inheritance is an inheritance of methods." This means, one would say, that the accumulated knowledge of civil and mechanical engineering, which lies at the base of our modern civilization (to speak only of perfectly definite things), is so much superfluous nonsense, and we wonder how method is to be inherited apart from information. But wait! A few lines further he tells us that, though the child born into a German family inherits no structural tendency to speak German, he does inherit an "environment" which compels him to use that language—and doubtless instructs him in the use of it. All, then, that the bold rejection of accumulated knowledge amounts to is the statement that the child will give to his language, or to other accumulated knowledge, a twist of his own, to express his own personal meaning; and this will be only so far as the child has a personal meaning to express.

The great importance which Mr. Moore attributes to the free activity of the pupil might lead one to believe that by socially profitable ways of using one's mind he means for each the ways that are *personally* profitable. It seems, indeed, that the first and last duty of the teacher is to encourage free activity. But here again his language has outstripped his meaning. For on page 208 he offers us a curiously etymological definition of "person" (the habit of etymologizing seems to cling especially to those educationists who abhor an effete culture), from which it appears that to be a person is to personate (*i. e.*, impersonate, according to the more vulgar use) some one else; etymologically, to wear a mask. "The individual puts on personality by personating or identifying himself with the preferred traits of the species. Though an individual, he learns to live the life of his kind. By this personating of the social part, individuality is transformed into personality." This confirms our suspicions. The privilege of choosing freely is confined to the privilege of choosing what is prescribed by social tradition, and the "free activity" is a pleasing illusion for the beguilement of the child.

From scientific pedagogy one turns with some relief to a book like Adolf A. Berle's "Teaching in the Home" (Moffat, Yard; $1.25), the purpose of which is apparently to guide the parent who wishes to supplement or to direct his child's education. Dr. Berle admits that the schools are full of clap-trap and machinery—without this admission it seems that to-day no pedagogical book can be copyrighted—but he proposes to take it good-naturedly and get along with it, and even to recognize that machinery is more or less inseparably connected with teaching *en masse*. Dr. Berle makes it clear that, both as sources of information and as mental stimuli, we have to deal with books. Therefore, it is important that we teach children to read. He notes the fact, of which all college teachers are painfully aware, that a great number of college students simply cannot read; they cannot take up anything more abstruse than the daily paper and find out what it means. And one reason is that, beyond a very simple vocabulary, they have only a vague sense of the meaning of words. Dr. Berle proposes that the child shall learn to use in his conversation the language of literature and of science. Otherwise, his knowledge is not "negotiable." He lays great stress upon what can be accomplished in private instruction at home, as against instruction in classes at school. Here he lays his finger upon the prime mechanical difficulty confronting every system of scholastic education, yet a difficulty rarely noted in educational treatises. It is all very well to talk about inefficient teaching; the problem is how to teach efficiently *en masse*. As a literary product, Dr. Berle's book is good reading, and bears the evidence throughout of something positive to say.

"All about children," would describe the subject-matter of William Byron Forbush's "Guide Book to Childhood" (G. W. Jacobs & Co.; $2.50 net). This fairly sizable book forms a summary of the facts and views collected by the American Institute of Child Life, of which the author is president, and embraces everything from the infant's bath to his choice of a vocation or a wife. To those parents who feel the necessity of making a scientific study of their childern, it is likely to be useful. In any case, a full and descriptive bibliography will show them where to pursue further the study of a special topic. But what chiefly impresses one in this general review is the little that child-study has to say. Some 180 pages are filled with answers to inquiries sent to the Institute by anxious parents. Most of the answers are sensible; a few are admirable; while a few—well, one can hardly respect the child who is induced to overcome his want of appetite more than once by the needs of the little fairies who are grinding a mill in his stomach. After all, it seems that specialists in child-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

study are at the mercy of their stock of common-sense, "the same as you and me."

"Learning to Earn" (Bobbs-Merrill; $1.25 net), by John A. Lapp (member of the National Commission on Vocational Education) and Carl H. Mote, offers a comprehensive survey of the facts and arguments bearing upon vocational education. The reader familiar with the literature of this subject will find nothing new, unless it be the rather extreme conception of the duties of the school and the responsibilities of the national Treasury. According to the authors, the ideal educational system, which is to be supported by the nation as well as by the States and the local communities, will assume the total care of all youth, from the time they enter school "until they have established themselves reasonably well in the work of the world." The system will furnish a complete education for all, instead of, as now, only a partial education for 90 per cent.; and by means of part-time schools, correspondence courses, and evening classes, it will "seek to make education a lifelong process by supplementing the experience of the worker with useful knowledge." "Anything short of universal education is both undemocratic and unsocial." This gives us some idea of what the Germans mean when they call their institutions "democratic." Of course, the optimistic assumption is that all are equally fit to be educated; and this means that many who would profit by education are now deprived of the opportunity. Possibly the last is true in reference to the high schools. In the colleges one is impressed rather by the number of very indifferent students enjoying expensive free tuition (not to speak of the more valuable scholarships). It may be confidently stated that to-day no youth of fair capacity, not encumbered by family responsibilities, is ever deprived of the opportunity for higher education, except by lack of information. Before we begin to set about making education more "universal," it would seem that we need to pay more attention to worth.

One of the conditions that serve to make the work of the teacher mechanical and uninteresting is the fact that, under the present system, the teacher is usually confronted with a wholly new set of pupils every half-year; so that, by the time she begins to know her pupils, she loses them. This fact has undoubtedly much to do with making the teacher, in the words of Frederic W. Sanders ("The Reorganization of Our Schools"; the Palmer Co.; $1 net), "a factory operative." Clearly the idea underlying the system is the factory idea of exhaustive practice and specialization in a narrow field. Such specialization may be justifiable in the colleges, where no graduate is expected to master more than a limited number of subjects; but in the elementary schools, which are supposed to deal exclusively with the essentials, it is not clear why the same teacher should not retain the pupil through a large part of his course. And surely it would seem that personal knowledge of the pupil must be a most important element in "efficiency." Mr. Sanders proposes a system under which the teacher will have the same pupils through the four or five years of what he conceives to be a natural developmental period; and under this system he thinks that it will be possible to adjust her work to the capacity of the pupils, releasing her from the necessity of covering a fixed extent of ground.

One of the most difficult pedagogical problems is the teaching of elementary ethics and the construction of an elementary textbook. Positive instruction in morals is apt to degenerate into platitudes, while for the immature mind discussion of ethical theory tends only to confusion. "An Introduction to Ethics," by G. A. Johnston, lecturer in moral philosophy at Glasgow (Macmillan; $1), strikes one as skilfully done. The writer admits that, in his endeavor to avoid controversial points, he has been forced sometimes to write more definitively than he would have preferred; yet the reader familiar with ethical philosophy will find little to which he can positively object. At the same time, the pupil is confronted fairly with all of the important problems. The book is designed for students in training colleges for teachers, and therefore it includes more or less that would be uninteresting, if not distasteful, to the ordinary student. But it is full of solid matter, simply put.

Two books—Louis Starr's "The Adolescent Period, Its Features and Management" (Blakiston; $1 net), and J. W. Slaughter's "The Adolescent" (Macmillan; 60 cents)—deal with a subject of deepest interest to parents, particularly in these times in which there is so much discussion regarding the efficiency or inefficiency of our system of education for the young. Intelligent parents feel more keenly now than they did a generation ago the necessity of providing the best possible means for the physical, mental, and moral development of their children. Dr. Starr's book is written in simple, straightforward style. It contains nothing especially new, but it is sensible and trustworthy. It collects the essential facts and presents them with the least possible use of technical terms. It must be admitted that the treatment of the subject lacks somewhat in the literary touch necessary to make it interesting, but parents who are looking for practical suggestions rather than for entertaining reading, will find this little book very helpful.

Dr. Slaughter's volume, although brief, is much more comprehensive in its scope. There is an attractive introduction by Professor Findlay and both this and the book itself contain much that is stimulating and suggestive. The author is evidently a lover of youth. He presents its psychology and possibilities and necessities with an enthusiasm that is contagious. By contrast he is unnecessarily critical and pessimistic in regard to the later periods of life. In this latter respect, in fact, the book or the author of it is open to just criticism. In a number of places extreme statements are made that cannot be accepted at their face value. The author doubtless did not intend them to be so accepted, acting probably on the general principle that to scare the devil one must make a loud noise, or perhaps succumbing to the temptation of epigrammatic cleverness. Whatever his motives may have been there can be no doubt that extravagant assertions such as "The chief value of great men is to fertilize the imagination of adolescents" tend to weaken rather than to strengthen the general argument that he is trying to establish. That argument, as we understand it, consists essentially in a forcible restatement of the old but apparently neglected truth that when we are children we think as children and should therefore be treated as children and not as adults.

THE CLASSICS.

GREEK.

Prof. H. W. Smyth has filled a long-felt want by the publication of his Greek Grammar (American Book Co.; $1.50). For the enlarged Moods and Tenses of Goodwin bears date 1889, while the grammars of Babbitt and Goodell, both published in 1902, are written primarily for the use of schools. The present book aims to meet the needs of both school and college, as its title-page indicates, but this double aim, in addition to being needless, owing to the practical disappearance of Greek from the schools, is unfortunate because it requires a kind of treatment which is a distinct disadvantage to a scientific work. It is true that the author disclaims any intention of writing a comparative or even historical grammar, for the latter of which the materials are still inadequate, and aims to treat the dialects other than Attic only so far as they occur in Homer, Herodotus, and Lyric poets, but inasmuch as he includes Theocritus among the last named, the book evidently covers practically the whole classical literature. In his treatment of syntax the author still rightly holds fast to the logical rather than to the formal principle of division; for practical use the grouping of similiar constructions together is a pedagogical necessity. In many respects he shows the influence of Gildersleeve, though he still retains the meaningless terminology of the conditional sentence. The material often shows a curious mixture of the very simple and the very scientific. Thus we have a large number of quite unnecessary definitions, as if the student had as yet studied no foreign language. Surely such terms as subject, predicate, transitive (badly defined as it is), and many others may be taken for granted at this stage. There are also many unnecessary rules; all due to the needs of "school."

Many of the rules are stated too vaguely; the phrase "many verbs" or "some verbs" occurs over and over again. Every experienced teacher should know that rules so phrased are productive of untold confusion to the learner. Witness the Latin rule of the dative with compounds, which Latin teachers are now gradually getting rid of. What is a pupil to make out of "several verbs of saying may also be used as verbs of will," when examples of only one verb are given, and there is no other place where the rule is supplemented? In spite of such defects, however, this grammar will be the standard for many years, and well deserves to be.

In the absence of a press devoted to the publication of scientific editions with a limited appeal, American classical scholars have been forced to present the results of their work in the form of schoolbooks, and this accounts for the appearance of Dr. L. L. Forman's edition of the "Clouds" of Aristophanes in the Greek Series for Colleges and Schools (American Book Co.; $1.50). In this an introduction of sixty-five pages is followed by the text with a simple commentary at the foot of the page, and then by an appendix of 120 pages, containing the most important part of the book. The introduction is a masterly account of the political and social conditions at Athens when the play was written, setting forth the elements of deterioration which were to result in the otherthrow of Athenian supremacy, elements which were to reappear afterwards at Rome, and also in more recent times, with like results.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The style is sparkling, sometimes marred by a too obvious straining after effect, and colored with an ironic tinge which shows the influence of the author upon the editor. The appendix is really a "wissenschaftliche" commentary for advanced students and teachers. The mass of discussion both critical and exegetical, the wealth of illustration both of language and of content, drawn mainly from Aristophanes himself, but also from other classical authors and modern authorities, will make this edition indispensable to all students of the old dramatist. Even here, however, the editor often shows his mordant touch, as, for example, when he tells us that "the writers on Salivary Glands, etc., obtained masters' degrees at Cornell University in 1902 and 1905, or "Would not Epicrates' joke be even better if the pumpkin had been autochthonous?" There are too many indistinct letters in the Greek text; otherwise the printing is good.

The edition of the "Clouds," by B. B. Rogers (London: G. Bell; 10s. 6d.), marks the completion of a work begun as far back as 1852, when the first edition of this play was brought out. During the intervening years the editor's range and power have steadily increased with the appearance of the successive plays, and he can now look back upon a complete Aristophanes with much satisfaction. The book is intended for the cultivated man rather than for the exact scholar. There is a translation in corresponding metres on the opposite pages to the text, and a judicious commentary. The introduction is concerned strictly with the problems connected with this particular play, some of which, as that of the double recension, are designedly untouched by Dr. Forman. The translation, by reason of its verse form, is often hardly a translation at all, but rather a paraphrase, and a most inaccurate one at that, but the spirit of the author is usually well preserved, and if it were printed separately one would hardly observe that one was reading a translation. An extensive critical appendix takes account of the history of the text, but in spite of its extent some matters have still escaped the eye of the editor. The appearance of the book is a delight to the eyes. It is a pity that we cannot match it by some American work.

LATIN.

The "New Latin Grammar" of Prof. E. A. Sonnenschein, of which a second edition appeared in 1914, has just been reissued in two parts, under the titles "A Latin Grammar for Schools" and "A Latin Syntax for Schools" (Oxford University Press; 40 cents each). As chairman of the English Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology Professor Sonnenschein has been greatly interested in the movement to standardize the terminology of all language teaching, and as practical examples has prepared French, English, and Latin Grammars. Hence, the most striking feature of this book is the absence of the time-honored terms. This change has not as yet commended itself widely to American scholars, and it is doubtful whether it will. In definitions and examples we notice also the constant reference to French and English parallels, a practice which would be valuable only where French was studied before Latin, as is often the case in England, but rarely here. In the syntax the order of arrangement is unusual, for the various constructions are arranged according to form rather than function. Thus the subordinate subjunctive constructions are treated under the subjunctive and thus precede the syntax of the cases. For this purpose the subjunctive is regarded as indicating (a) what is to be done, (b) what would happen under certain imagined conditions, and (c) as showing a weakened force little different from that of the indicative. The whole material of the dependent final, consecutive, temporal, and conditional clauses occupies less than thirty pages of very open type, and while the statements are simple and clear, they would gain much by less compression. The appearance of the pages is very unattractive and far below the standard of the American textbook.

One of the most important, if not the most important, advantage asserted for the study of Latin is the more exact use of English, due largely to careful exercise in translation. Unfortunately this exact use of English is conspicuous by its absence in this country. The habit of Pigeon-English, which is acquired in the first year, is very rarely overcome. Then, too, our ridiculous requirements for entrance to college render the attempt to treat translation as a fine art almost nugatory in our schools. To some degree the same conditions seem to prevail in Australia, for H. Darnley Naylor, of the University of Adelaide, felt it necessary to prepare a few years ago some directions for translation under the title "Latin and English Idiom," to which he has now added a second volume, "More Latin and English Idiom—An Object Lesson from Livy XXXIV, 1-8" (Putnam; $1.10). The chapters chosen are translated into idiomatic English of most excellent quality, while an extensive commentary sets forth in detail the reasons for every specific rendering. The principles of Latin word-order are especially emphasized and abundant suggestions are made as to freedom as well as accuracy of translation. Professor Naylor has discovered nothing new, and has added little to our best practice, but it is the neglect of what is already known that is largely responsible for some of our shortcomings, and all Latin teachers will find much food for thought in this object lesson.

In "Porta Latina," a reading method for the second year, by F. G. Moore (Ginn; 60 cents), we have another attempt to teach the Art of Reading Latin. Since Professor Hale's little book, published more than thirty years ago, no special effort has been made to teach younger pupils how to approach a Latin sentence, although the various textbooks have given general directions. This book consists of fifty fables of La Fontaine translated into the best of Latin as a reading book for the second year. The most important features are the introduction and the style of punctuation. In the former the child is told how to visualize a Latin sentence, how its order of words shows in a way the appearance of the various actors upon the scene, and the order of their activities, how the sentence consists of different component parts or phrases, and how these must be understood in their entirety before the whole meaning is obtained. To facilitate this proper phrasing, the text has the different pauses indicated by dots, a device which may be effective, though at first somewhat confusing. Some directions are also given as to the proper treatment of conjunctions, particularly those whose meaning for the pupil will depend upon the context. As to the great advantage of correct phrasing there can be no two opinions. There is no detail of reading that is more neglected, but the most serious question is how to teach the teacher, for most teachers have but rudimentary ideas of good reading themselves. If this book will help them, it will go a long distance in helping the learner; certainly it should prove suggestive and stimulating.

The material for oral training in Latin is steadily increasing. The most recent addition is J. J. Schlicher's "Latin Plays" (Ginn; 75 cents). This is a collection of seven short plays based mainly upon the reading material of the high school. The end of the Helvetian campaign, the conspiracy of Catiline, the stories of Dido and of Andromeda are the subjects of four. The Latin is very simple, and abundant stage directions are supplemented by a few notes and a vocabulary. Most of these plays are dull and but slightly dramatic, but children will probably gain a good deal of amusement from them if the teacher is capable. Hitherto the only dramatic material in this country has been the two Latin plays of Miss Paxson. In England the material is much more extensive.

The Oxford Press has added another small volume to its Direct-Method Lingua Latina series: "Reges Consulesque Romani" (40 cents), being short stories of Roman heroes from the first book of Livy. This supplements a similar mythological collection from Ovid, recently made.

Messrs. W. B. Gunnison and W. S. Harley have filled out their series of secondary Latin textbooks with a beginners' book, "Latin for the First Year" (Silver, Burdett & Co.; $1), which embodies the attempt to carry water on as many shoulders as there are developments in modern teaching. Thus, it is now agreed that our introductory books have included too much, both of forms and of syntax; hence, this book omits the independent uses of the subjunctive and the more difficult constructions as well as all but the essential forms. Every beginners' book must still prepare for Cæsar; hence the vocabulary of about 700 words (too many if all are to be committed to memory) and the reading material are taken from Cæsar, the later lessons containing a simplified version of the Helvetian Campaign. But the outlook of the child should not be too narrow; hence easy fables and stories of early Rome form supplementary reading. There is a great cry for the coördination of Latin with modern life; hence standard quotations and proverbs are to be memorized by the pupil. The second lesson gives the first verse of "Integer Vitæ," before the pupil knows what a form is. Much discussion is now going on about the "Direct Method"; hence many of the sentences for translation from English into Latin are cast in the form of questions which are to be answered in Latin. Then the interests of economy are furthered by the addition of a desiccated grammar of thirty-four pages in an appendix. But withal, the material is presented with great clearness and simplicity, the pedagogical devices are clever and show classroom experience, and the printing is clear and open.

Another beginners' book is "A Year of Latin," by W. A. Montgomery (Row, Peterson & Co.; $1). This is a mixture of reaction-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ary and ultra-modern features. Its fundamental principle is that of unity of presentation rather than the customary piecemeal selection. Thus, after the first declension comes the indicative mood (omitting the future perfect) of the first conjugation in two lessons; then five lessons devoted to the second declension are succeeded by one on the indicative of the second conjugation; after this, thirteen lessons on the third declension, etc. Another reactionary feature is the insertion of complete short stories as early as the third lesson with the unknown words translated. Many of these are, however, of modern content, as, for example, a short version of Mark Twain's "Jumping Frog." David's combat with Goliath also appears, as well as the unique letter of Columbus announcing the discovery of the new world, a very interesting specimen of the Latin of the Middle Ages. A striking as well as important feature is the "development and review exercise," a series of paragraphs in every lesson, giving directions for preparation, suggestions as to English derivatives, and other matters. The reading lessons, both Latin and English, consist of much longer sentences than are usually found in such textbooks. The advantage is to give a larger content to the sentences, but the serious disadvantage is the larger demand upon the carrying power of the pupil's mind. Professor Moore followed this practice in his "First Latin Book" (1903), but recurred to the simpler form in "The Elements of Latin" (1906), probably because the longer sentence proved unacceptable. The book contains some "direct" features, but the author is obviously not a convert to the new method. At the end we find the Lord's Prayer and a valuable collection of Latin phrases and mottoes current in this country. The terminology smacks of Gildersleeve, a feature not likely to commend the book in some quarters.

The "Oxford Latin Course," Part I, by R. L. A. Du Pontet (Oxford University Press; 60 cents), contains many points of interest. The tone is not that of a teacher with a pupil, but that of a friend telling a child some interesting things; hence there is a leisurely air about it, and this is augmented by the use of graphic devices that are quite out of the common. Thus, inflections are regarded as signals hoisted on a flagstaff of the stem. Some of these poles fly as many as four pennants. So, too, the meaning of the word declension is illustrated by a series of lines falling away from the perpendicular. The arrangement of the book is by declensions, all the information except the passive voice being included under these. The first declension covers 177 paragraphs in 49 pages, but in this are also contained as essential elements of reading the present and imperfect tenses active and the infinitives of the four conjugations, as well as of *sum, possum, volo, nolo,* and *malo.* The vocabulary of the first declension offers many difficulties for reading purposes, and it is a pity that the second was not also included in this first section, but it is remarkable how much the author has done with it. More than 600 sentences for translation from Latin into English and half that number from English into Latin are found in this section. There is also an account of Cæsar's invasion of Britain in eleven paragraphs in which only nouns of the first declension occur. After the first declension follow in order the second (151 paragraphs), the fifth, the third (67 paragraphs), the fourth and the passive (38 paragraphs). Much attention is paid to "Direct Method" features. The interrogative particles and pronouns are introduced early and exemplified by eight pages of question and answer, and there are many paragraphs of sentences to be answered by the pupil in his own Latin. Interesting bits of unusual information are found at intervals. At the end is Cæsar's account of the invasion of Britain simplified to avoid the subjunctive, for which the book does not provide. Altogether the book is one from which American teachers can draw many fruitful suggestions.

An interesting textbook in Latin Composition is "The Writing of Narrative Latin," by B. W. Mitchell (American Book Co.; $1.10), designed for the last three years of the high school. The fundamental principle is the necessity of attacking Latin prose from the point of view of English idiom—not a new idea, but new in the way it is developed. Most textbooks follow the development of the Latin Grammar, but Dr. Mitchell takes up the English forms of expression and idioms and shows how they would appear in Latin, and the exercises illustrate these points. With this in view, every vocabulary is followed by a paragraph of English synonyms of the words used. Thus, in the vocabulary of lesson I is the word "conquer, *supero*"; this is glossed by "beat, crush, defeat, overcome, vanquish, win," and the written exercise employs all these words as well as "conquer." Whether this will prove of much help to a better knowledge seems very problematical, but it should be of service for the better handling of English. Part I, containing three-quarters of the book, is devoted to this development of English syntax, and it is expected that it will be completed in the second year. Parts II and III are of continuous prose, gradually increasing in difficulty. The material of the second part is the first five years of the Gallic war, that of the third is "notes on the Balkan war." A useful table of Latin synonyms and an appendix of more than one hundred Ciceronian words and phrases with a vocabulary complete a book that should be effective.

Prof. D. R. Stuart's edition of the "Germania" of Tacitus (Macmillan; 40 cents) is a companion volume to his edition of the "Agricola," published in 1909. A brief but scholarly introduction treats the object of Tacitus in writing the book, its importance and value as an historical document, and its eminence as a work of literary art. The commentary is naturally more extensive than that on the "Agricola," but shows the same sobriety and restraint. It is fortunately not greatly marred by notes written for the ignorant school-boy, and is more concerned with explaining the matter than with helping the student to translate. The only question that may occur is whether such a treatise should be read by sophomores at all. Certainly the immature reader will find it dull, even with so good a commentary as this.

A very pleasing small volume of verse has been published by J. Brookes More entitled "Gods and Heroes and Myths from Ovid" (Thrash-Lick Publishing Co.). The greater part is made up of imitations of Ovidian stories to the number of ten in all. Comparison with the originals shows that the Ovidian narrative is followed closely, but all the peculiarly Ovidian features, such as artificiality and lascivious implication, are absent. Hence we have charming stories, but not Ovid. The introductory story of Orpheus and Eurydice is an original treatment, though an occasional reminiscence of Ovid can be discerned, but it has a plaintive quality all its own. A few sonnets are added and some Eastern legends.

ENGLISH.

SELECTED TEXTS.

Among the reprinted texts, none is more worthily done than the edition of Bacon's "New Atlantis" (Clarendon Press; 1s. 6d.). The typographical variety of the original is faithfully reproduced; and a good thing it is that students not children should have an opportunity at small expense to accustom their eyes to the look of a page from the days when the printer was an active collaborator with the author. An ample introduction and necessary notes are provided by A. B. Gough. Newman's "Gentleman"—the eighth discourse in his "Idea of a University"—has been edited by Prof. Charles L. O'Donnell (Longmans, Green; 35 cents). The notes are concerned chiefly with the analysis of points of structure. Throughout the editor insists on the necessity of regarding the whole matter from the point of view of Catholic Christianity.

To Merrill's English Texts has been added "Hamlet" (30 cents), edited primarily for high-school use by Prof. Allan Abbott. The volume condenses the materials and exhibits the methods of the most recent scholarship on the subject. A compact little book is Marlowe's "Doctor Faustus," with notes by C. B. Wheeler and an introduction, written some years ago, by Sir A. W. Ward (London: Oxford University Press). The value of the notes, which are good, would have been enhanced if the lines of the text had been numbered.

Two recent additions to the "Masterpieces in English Drama," under the general editorship of Professor Schelling, are Ben Jonson, represented by four of the chief comedies, omitting "Bartholomew Fair," and an introduction by Ernest Rhys; and Thomas Middleton, four of whose plays are edited by Prof. Martin W. Sampson. "Michaelmas Term" is included, but not "A Chaste Maid in Cheapside." The series runs now to some nine volumes, compactly but informingly annotated.

A revision of Professor Skeat's "Lay of Havelock the Dane," embodying in introduction and notes the not inconsiderable material which has turned up since 1902, was a highly desirable undertaking. This task has been acceptably discharged by K. Sisam (Clarendon Press). The introduction has been remodelled, cutting out old material and adding new, and the notes rewritten. But why was the editor forced, as he says, to crowd his work into the space of a "few weeks"?

For Scribners, Henry W. Lanier has edited "Selections" from his father's verse and prose (50 cents net). Some of the war sketches are especially interesting, and there is a bit of translation from Anglo-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Saxon and a fragment of a lecture on George Eliot.

A professor of history has collaborated to advantage with a professor of English in the preparation of Hemmingway and Seymour's "Selections from Carlyle" (Heath). It offers portions large enough to be significant from "Sartor," "French Revolution," and "Past and Present."

One wonders why Scribners have added to their Famous Series of Stories and Essays "Father Damien: An Open Letter to the Rev. Dr. Hyde, of Honolulu" (50 cents net). Stevenson dashed it off while hot with indignation from reading Dr. Hyde's defamatory letter in the Sydney (Australia) *Presbyterian*, and it suffered almost none of the fastidious revision bestowed on his other writings. But it was of its contents he was thinking when he declared it "barbarously harsh." For he did not really defend that priest who went to live in the leper colony on the Island of Molokai, and after sixteen years of service died of the loathsome disease which he had tried to alleviate, and whose death had occurred a month before Stevenson's visit to the island. Stevenson, indeed, admits most of the points in the accusation, but flames forth with scathing invective against the comfortable Dr. Hyde. Characteristic as the work is in some ways, the author would hardly now welcome its wider circulation.

In "American Literature, with Readings in American Literature" (Boston: Allyn & Bacon), Prof. R. B. Pace, of Swarthmore College, has combined two workmanlike volumes. In the historical part of the book he has limited himself to authors whose works high-school pupils can be asked to read, has excluded contemporary writers, and has minimized tendencies and background. This seems to us as it should be, for, to high-school pupils at least, individual authors are the natural units in literature. Professor Pace meets, as well as almost any of his rivals, the almost insurmountable task of explaining in a few pages who the Puritans were, and what they believed. His account of the later period gives more attention than do most books to Southern writers. His selections run parallel to his historical treatment, and well illustrate it. In all, he gives 260 pages to his historical narrative, and 337 pages to selections. Of the selections, seventy-two pages deal with writers before Washington Irving. Hawthorne gets about twenty-eight pages. Emerson, however, gets only nine pages, of which four deal with his prose. In view of the author's having quoted with approval (page 173) Professor Wendell's remark that "Emerson's work is so individual that you can probably get no true impression of it without reading deeply for yourself," this seems inadequate. We do not believe that skilfully made selections from Emerson are too hard reading for high-school students, and we are inclined to think that few experiences can do them more good than to read the simpler parts of a half-dozen of Emerson's best essays.

For college courses in English literature, "The English Familiar Essay," edited by Dr. W. F. Bryan and Dr. R. S. Crane, of the Northwestern University (Ginn; $1.25), is a very substantial volume of selections from Bacon, Cowley, certain eighteenth-century periodicals, Lamb, Hazlitt, Thackeray, Stevenson, and others. Introduction, notes, and bibliography are alike creditable. The connection between the *Tatler* and *Spectator* and their predecessors is traced with unusual care; and the charm of various essayists, as well as the historical facts necessary to understanding the development of the type, is successfully brought out. The editors seem not to know of Dr. MacDonald's recent work (in the University of Toronto Studies) on "The Beginnings of the English Essay"; in fact, they say (p. 388) that "there exists no adequate single account of the early history of the *English essay*."

It is useful to have the essays on Addison, by Johnson, Macaulay, and Thackeray, combined in one volume, as they have been under the editorship of G. E. Hadow (Oxford University Press). The merits of these essays are well known, and the gain of having them in connection with forty pages of well-made selections from the *Tatler* and *Spectator* is considerable.

Prof. Edwin Greenlaw, of the University of North Carolina, has edited certain English and American "Familiar Letters" (Scott, Foresman; 40 cents) adequately, though with a minimum of introduction and notes. In his introduction he has successfully combined the rhetorical and the historical interest which the material naturally presents. One regrets that he has not included any letters of James Russell Lowell.

Professor Manly's "English Prose and Poetry" (Ginn; $1.50) appears in a thin-paper edition, an agreeably compact volume.

"The Chief British Poets of the 14th and 15th Centuries," edited by Profs. W. A. Neilson and K. G. T. Webster (Houghton Mifflin; $2.50 net), is especially welcome by reason of the generous representation accorded to the Scottish poets from Barbour to Lyndesay. With Gregory Smith out of print and Hand Browne never entirely satisfactory, the student, outside of a large library, was put to it to find texts. If the Scottish writers have met with comparative neglect, one of the chief causes is now removed. The editors have wisely stretched their later limit to include Skelton, another among the many who have had the misfortune to fall between two periods. Should not Barclay, and some specimen of fifteenth-century romance have been represented? There is not a little which has gone unrepresented for which we should have been willing to exchange Chaucer and the ballads, which, though richly deserving by reason of literary worth the relative space given them, are so easily accessible as to destroy any reason for inclusion in the present collection, save a literal loyalty to the title. One could wish, too, that the editors had not decided to print only a few stanzas of the original texts of "Sir Gawain," "Pearl," and "Piers Plowman," even though it would have been necessary in the case of the first two, at least, to include a complete translation as well. The glosses and notes are a model of concision, and the texts excellent.

"The Patriotic Poetry of Wordsworth," selected by the Rt. Hon. Arthur H. D. Ackland (Clarendon Press), is by way of being a timely book. England hath need of him. The dedication is to one Edward Grey. The record makes interesting reading in the light of present events, a parallelism that is, however, not forced in the excellent notes that appear opposite each selection. There are two collections of essays on the list. The first, Prof. C. T. Winchester's "A Book of English Essays" (Holt; 45 cents), confines itself to the masters of literary form from Bacon to Stevenson. It is classic whereas a second series of "Essays for College Men," chosen by Profs. Foerster, Manchester, and Young (Holt; $1.25), appeals distinctly to the modern side, opening with Woodrow Wilson and closing with William James; undoubtedly good reading for the college man. Let us hope that no one will try to "teach" it to him.

FOR YOUNGER READERS.

For the younger student there is a wealth of attractive reading. J. C. Smith's "A Book of Verse for Boys and Girls" (Oxford University Press; 3s. 6d.) strikes us as quite the best thing of its kind. Good, sound stuff, all of it, it chooses narrative poems for preference, not neglecting some modern examples. In every case, whether the matter be adventure by land and sea, or the world of fairies or of meditation, it is the imagination that is stirred. The explanatory notes are both sensible and likely to be attractive to the audience for which they are designed. Although it is a British book, the American poets are adequately represented. The indexes leave a great deal to be desired.

The heroes and heroines of Mary Stoyell Stimpson's "The Child's Book of English Biography" (Little, Brown; $1 net) are all British, but not all literary. It is a little monotonous, like the "Falls of Princes," but generally the theme is precisely the opposite. On the whole, it is rather thin reading, but it might well stimulate a child to seek out further information.

For Ginn & Co., Scott's "Lay of the Last Minstrel" (35 cents) and Irving's "Alhambra" (50 cents) have been edited by Mrs. Margaret A. Allen and by Edward K. Robinson, respectively. Both volumes are attractively illustrated by numerous simple pencil sketches.

Maud Radford Warren tells the story of "Robin Hood and His Merry Men" (Rand, McNally), with all the Earl of Huntington and Maid Marian trimmings. Music is provided for the incidental songs, and morality is well looked after. With the help of the book, though, the child will find his way to the greenwood.

Prof. J. H. Cox, in his readable paraphrase, "Siegfried" (Row, Peterson; 50 cents), has done wisely to follow the narrative as it is found in the "Nibelungenlied," without attempting a "harmony" of various and sundry forms of the story. The language conveys something of the simplicity and color of the original, without attempting to be quaint or archaic.

That "Europa's Fairy Book," by the late Joseph Jacobs (Putnam; $1.25 net), should combine science and charm is no surprise. The twoscore and more tales are told for the delectation of his grandchild, but it is surely the most extraordinary fairy book she, or the other people's grandchildren who will read it, ever looked into. For Europa is Europe, and the stories represent the author's

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

attempt, by careful comparison of the variants, to get at the original form (*ur*-form) of the most common formulæ among European folk-tales. Some fifty pages of "Noats" ("no admittance except on business") explain for the benefit of grandfathers of all ages the methods of reconstruction. Of the results of the "methode" one cannot be sure that the children will entirely approve; Cinderella's slippers are of gold instead of glass.

Fresh and simple tales from the Swedish of Topelius, the Norwegian of Jörgen Moe, are translated for the first time by Gudrun Thorne-Thomsen in "The Birch and the Star" (Row, Peterson; 40 cents). Any one who cares for the affairs of "only five" will be interested in little Beate.

The Progressive School Classics (Beckley-Cardy Co.; 5 cents each) run to nearly a score of well-made paper volumes, each containing an adequately annotated "classic": "The Ancient Mariner," "Enoch Arden," and the like; and each for the price of five cents. One thinks of several ways in which such texts might be useful. From the same publishers come "Best Memory Gems" (15 cents), compiled by Joseph C. Sindelar. Its short aphorisms are designed to inculcate the minor virtues rather than to stimulate the imagination.

RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION.

The fascinating art of telling stories has in these days been reduced to a profession or a business. As such, it must be provided with its "literature." William Byron Forbush frankly endeavors to furnish in his "Manual of Stories" (George W. Jacobs & Co.; $1.50 net) a *vade mecum* for every variety and rank of story-teller. The publishers unblushingly confess that "it is the most comprehensive book that has yet been written." The soft impeachment, so far as it concerns the ways and kinds of telling stories to children, seems to be borne out by the fifteen chapters of Part I. But the "most unique" feature, to quote the publishers again, is Part II, which details a system of using bottle-dolls as a dramatic device. The plan is interesting because of its simplicity and its adaptability to any home or circle. The appendices number ten, and are so full as to render first aid to all and sundry. In short, this one volume might well obviate the fingering of numberless pages on the subject. Of course, its comprehensiveness does not extend to actually telling the stories, but that deficiency is supplied by "World Stories Retold" (Jacobs; $1 net), by Prof. William James Sly. The book is as alleged intended for the home, but it will be serviceable to the uninitiated anywhere. Noteworthy is the concluding section, containing versions of arresting careers, under the caption, "Modern Boys and Girls Who Became Useful." Here, as well as in the scores of other stories, many of them classics because of beauty of conception, the predominant note in the rehearsal is lack of distinction. Perhaps this may be traced to the solemn determination never to tell a story without a meaning. To aid and abet this design in those who employ these recitals, the author adds an ethical index.

In an adjoining field lies Miss Ina C. Emery's "Constructive English" (Scribner; 80 cents net), intended for the higher grades of the grammar school. As an effort to lead the pupil to tell his own stories and express his own pleasure in his surroundings, it has the crowning merit of beginning where the child's interests are and calling for a progressive development of his experiences. These experiences, to be sure, are largely those of the village and countryside, but surely no one can object to the assumption that every child should gain an acquaintance with nature. It is curious to note that, though the author's language is often above the level of development attained by the child, the conception and arrangement of the book display a clear understanding of the way children think.

The adolescent age is provided for in "Short Stories for High Schools" (Scribner; 90 cents net), collected by Miss Rosa M. R. Mikels. A distinguishing feature is the fact that, of the twenty-one stories, the majority are still protected by copyright, so that its youthful readers will not have to drink exclusively from the cisterns of the past. The arrangement of these specimens is from simple adventure to subtle study of character, the latter presumably only for the more brilliant of the high-school age. Short prefatory notes point out the distinctive features of each selection. A hopeful sign of returning sanity anent this ever-popular kind of fiction is that only seven pages of the introduction are devoted to elucidating the theory of the short story. Three additional pages offer sensible suggestions on how to use the book as a stimulus to original production.

In "Practical English Composition" (Books I, II, and III, Houghton Mifflin; 35 cents each) Edwin L. Miller, of the Northwestern High School, Detroit, Mich., has written three small volumes (one for each of the first three years in the high school), upon which it would be very hard to improve. Attractive in appearance, compactly phrased, full of humor, never getting far away from good literature, giving specific, interesting problems and sensible directions for solving them, these books emphasize all the legitimate attractions of the subject and omit senseless formalities. We thought we were beyond surprise at any sentence that any pupil could write, but we confess to more than a flutter of interest when, among other amusingly incorrect sentences, we read this one: "We climbed Mount Vesuvius in order to see the creator smoke."

Not as much can be said for "Elements of High School English," by Maude M. Frank, of the De Witt Clinton High School, New York city (Longmans, Green; 75 cents). The second part of this book, which relates to grammar, is clear, thorough, and well exemplified. In the first part, however, particularly in the first fifty pages, the author seems to feel obliged to cover a great deal more ground than can be covered thoroughly. If the need of compression was so great, the author should, we think, have borrowed space from other parts of the book, in order to permit more thorough definitions and explanations of doctrine. The first fifty pages, for example, consist of about five pages of text and forty-five pages of specimens and topics. This part of the book, which discusses the four "kinds of composition," is much the weakest. It would, we think, have been better not to mention "kinds of composition" at all, if they could not be more thoroughly explained. The third part of the book contains four ten-minute plays for the classroom. Further directions for performing these plays would seem to be highly desirable: costumes, scenery, and such matters, present difficulties upon which light would have been welcome.

For rather backward college freshmen, advanced high-school students, stenographers, and inquiring spirits generally, there is help in "Everyday Rhetoric," by Prof. L. H. Dodd, of Clark College (Worcester: The Davis Press; $1). Unattractively printed and bound, with pages far too large and numbered at the bottom, the book is, nevertheless, a useful manual. Clever pupils will quickly outgrow it; even mediocre pupils will find in it little to help them organize their work and make it march steadily forward. But for drilling dullards in the correct use of words it is, in a solemn way, effective.

Another book with a page much too large is "English Composition for College Freshmen," by W. O. Sypherd and G. E. Dutton, of Delaware College (privately printed, 1915), which is accompanied by nearly two hundred pages (loose-leaf) of specimens, forming Part II of the work. Why the book and the specimens should be as large as the usual college notebook we do not see. Our impression is that freshmen like small books which they can put into their pockets. This book is businesslike, full of apparatus, not distinguished in style, but entirely adequate in matter. Any one who had mastered it would know enough theory to write well; whether there is enough literary feeling and personality in the book to keep pupils working, can be known only where it has been tried.

Mechanically, at least, we fancy that "English by Practice," by Joseph T. Griffin and Frances Moraff (Hinds, Noble & Eldredge), will be useful. The work consists of four notebooks (30 cents each), containing tests to be applied in reading. spaces for exercises in spelling, punctuation, building up the vocabulary, etc. It is apparently intended for grammar schools. Undoubtedly, uniform notebooks are necessary, and these seem good ones; but, of course, there ought to be a certain amount of free composition, which seems to be less provided for here than is the filling in of blank forms.

To include within one volume specific suggestions for teaching English in the first eight grades of school is manifestly difficult, if not impossible; yet something like that is the purpose of "Language and Composition by Grades: A Handbook for Teachers," by J. M. Hammond, principal of the Morse School (Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co.; 85 cents). To know what has been done in previous grades is undoubtedly an advantage, both in preparing work and in reviewing what has been done. We fancy that a pupil who has completed the plan of study suggested in this volume will have acquired considerable facility in composition; but we do not feel convinced that he will be adequately grounded in English grammar.

A really good book, which aims to meet the needs of "the modern, active man or woman of the world, who must talk a great deal, and wishes to do it with businesslike simplicity and brevity," is "Oral English," by John M. Brewer (Ginn; $1). Here we have nearly four hundred small, well-printed pages of material —judiciously balanced between discussions,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

examples, and problems—for oral composition, narrative, description, and argument, and for more formal speeches and debates. The author does not slight the matter of gathering and testing material, and what he says about pronunciation is good, so far as it goes. We confess, however, that nearly all books on English composition seem to be doing less than their full duty in improving the pronunciation and enunciation of the American high-school and college pupil. For every really helpful page of frank criticism of our national and provincial failings in the oral use of the mother tongue, we have a volume on public speaking. We wonder why some one does not see that private speaking is the really important thing.

We cannot quite imagine what sort of reader is aimed at in "Effective Public Speaking," by Prof. F. B. Robinson, of the College of the City of New York (Chicago: La Salle Extension University). Not only are we here instructed in the physiology of the throat, in various aspects of personal hygiene, in the principal Greek and Latin prefixes and suffixes, in "vocabulary building," in argument (including observations on "floor tactics"), and in a variety of other matters, but our future—assuming it to be political—is rendered easy by a graduated series of models for speeches (or "speech material"), running from the after-dinner speech to the inaugural address. It is quite likely that the observations included in this book were put in because the author's experience led him to believe that they were needed; yet it is certainly difficult to suppose that they will all be needed by the same person: for example, any one likely to profit by the direction that "a speaker wearing an overcoat and then entering a warm hall should remove the coat on entering" will probably not care to get up the list of Greek prefixes on page 201. Both of these features of the book have conceivable uses. It is worth while to know the meaning of *ambi-* and of *syn-*, and it is certainly important to know that we should take off our coats (and our hats, too, for that matter) upon entering a hall; but a book of 467 pages on these matters is not to be published lightly. In this case the author would have succeeded far better if he had limited himself to high-school pupils interested in debating and elocution, or to college students of the same interests, or to public speakers.

METHODS.

A set of "Questions on Readings in English Literature" (Century; 90 cents) has been devised by Prof. Maurice G. Fulton and others to guide the teacher, or the self-taught, on his devious way from "Widsith" to Stevenson. Many are helpful and suggestive; others are just questions.

"Why We Punctuate," by William Livingston Klein (Lancet Publishing Co.; $1.25), is the work of an enthusiast for his subject. Though it refines further than any but an enthusiast would care to follow, the method seems to be sound. In this connection, a chapter on the history of punctuation would be instructive.

Prof. Frederic M. Tisdel writes "A Brief Survey of English and American Literature" (Macmillan; 85 cents). It is a competent performance, and brings to the attention of the high-school students about as much of the story as his programme gives him time to attend to.

The "Interpretation of the Printed Page," by Prof. S. H. Clark (Row, Peterson Co.; $1.25), provides a number of brief selections for reading aloud which serve to illustrate various problems in grouping, subordination, coördination, and so on. The comment which binds them together was doubtless more effective in the classroom, the tone of which it reproduces exactly, than it is in print.

"Every book deserves a square deal," asserts Miss Emma M. Bolenius in "Teaching Literature in the Grammar Grades and High School" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.75 net). Some books, if we may judge from some rather forbidding-looking diagrams, get all that is coming to them. "The old rules of the game in writing drama were the three unities and the chorus. Shakespeare cut loose from these." This style seems to spring from the author's theory of getting all the "thrills" possible. Apart from these vivacities the book offers a good many useful suggestions. The reading lists are full and pertinent, and the general method of working out with the class, before reading a poem, the necessary background, historical or linguistic, is excellent. The teacher can hardly fail to find something to his purpose here.

"A Book of English Literature" (Macmillan; $2.25), by Profs. Franklin B. Snyder and Robert G. Martin, of Northwestern University, contains ample materials for the "survey course" that called it into being. It does not differ very strikingly from the many other books of its kind, except (a matter of no small importance) as its wide margins and clear type combine to make a page less than ordinarily trying to the eye.

To teach the high grammatical doctrines of "I Saw" and "It Was I," Alhambra G. Deming has devised a set of "Language Games" (Beckly-Cardy Co.) to be played with cards (the cards accompany the textbook), which involve the pupil in a conversation necessitating a repetition of the desired formula until it is branded upon his memory. The method is said to have been successful in practice.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

FRENCH.

Schinz and King's "Seventeenth Century French Readings" (Holt; $1.25) offers a series of representative extracts, both prose and verse, from important authors of the period covered, among whom, however, owing to considerations of space and ready accessibility elsewhere, the dramatists are not included. In their method of choice the compilers have not been governed solely by an absolute standard of artistic excellence, but have wisely inserted some selections—such as those from Perrault—the importance of which is chiefly historical. To students of literature the book should be welcome and useful.

In "Contes Français" (Holt; 90 cents) Professor Buffum, of Princeton, has gathered about two dozen short stories from Mérimée, Maupassant, Daudet, Erckmann-Chatrian, Coppée, Gautier, Balzac, and Musset—partly familiar, some of which, however, had not previously appeared in scholastic editions. Notes and a vocabulary are provided.

Among recent noteworthy additions to Heath's Modern Language series (45 cents) are Loti's delightful autobiographical "Le Roman d'un Enfant," excellently edited, with introduction, notes, and vocabulary, by Prof. A. F. Whittem, of Harvard; "Lectures Historiques," consisting of extracts, judiciously chosen, by E. Moffett, mainly from standard historians (Michelet, Quinet, Thiers, Mignet), dealing with significant events in French history from 1610 to 1815, and furnished with introduction, notes, lexicon of proper names and vocabulary; and "En France" (Heath; 90 cents), by Professor Fontaine, of Columbia, a simple and readable narrative of travel in France, suitable for beginners, and containing much miscellaneous useful information, with attractive illustrations, a *questionnaire*, notes, and vocabulary.

A. A. and B. Méras have followed their "Premier Livre," noticed last year in these columns, with a "Second Livre" (American Book Company; 64 cents), designed to cover the second half of the first year's work in French. The reading-matter on which the sixty lessons—similar in plan to those of the "Premier Livre"—are based, is drawn from Jules Verne's "Le Tour du Monde en quatre-vingts Jours."

The first volume of the "Oxford Treasury of French Literature" (Clarendon Press), edited by A. G. Latham, contains epic, lyric, and prose selections ranging in date from the earliest period to the end of the seventeenth century. A second volume is to represent the whole course of the French drama; and a third will cover non-dramatic literature from 1700 to the present time. Mr. Latham's work is excellent in its good taste and in its carefulness. One may read his first volume—and have students read it—with satisfaction. The selections are linked by summaries and prefaces (which need correction here and there), and are very briefly annotated. For the passages taken from the "Roland," the "Aucassin," and other mediæval works, the page is divided, a modern French translation appearing above, and the original text below. Rabelais is banished.

GERMAN.

Gerstäcker is chiefly known to American readers as the author of the harmless, diverting "Irrfahrten." A more ambitious story, "Der Wilddieb," has now been edited by Prof. W. R. Myers, of the University of Minnesota (Heath; 40 cents). The first part of the story is swift-moving and exciting; in the second half, where the author tries to deepen the psychological interest, he falls into melodramatic sentimentality. The interest, however, is held to the end. The vocabulary is simple and practical, of the kind that is suitable for second- or third-year work. The text is equipped with notes, vocabulary, English exercises, and German questions. The following misprints have been noticed: Gewält for gewählt (p. 8), *den* Pacht for *die* Pacht (p. 68), and on page 67 the l has dropped out of Viertelstunde.

It was in 1894 that Prof. R. W. Deering first issued his edition of Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell." In the twenty-two years since then the edition has commended itself steadily to teachers in both high schools and colleges. It is now reissued in an enlarged and thoroughly revised form (Heath Co.; 75 cents). The entire book has been reset so as to modernize the orthography. The introduction has been rewritten, with increased attention to characterization and dramatic structure. The notes are made fuller, in order to meet the needs of younger students by whom the play is being more and more frequently read. For the same purpose

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and as a concession to the direct method, *Fragen* have been added. This excellent edition may be obtained with or without a vocabulary —a very desirable alternative.

A new edition of Grillparzer's "Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen" is a fresh indication of the growing esteem for the eminent Austrian dramatist. If it is not actually the greatest of his plays, it is certainly the most beautiful and the best adapted to class-room use. The edition already on the American market suffered from a too restricted treatment of grammatical and verbal difficulties, of which the text has its full share. This shortcoming has been remedied in the edition of the play by Prof. John L. Kind, of the University of Wisconsin (Oxford University Press; 70 cents). In the introduction the editor has attempted with considerable success to discuss Grillparzer's works as the inevitable outgrowth of his life and experiences. The length of this introduction may appear excessive, but Professor Kind has added some questions by means of which the salient facts may be readily picked out. There is a sort of appendix in German with a synopsis of each act and a set of questions. This effort to meet the demand for the use of the foreign idiom in the discussion of a foreign literature may not commend itself to all teachers, but it is there, *à prendre ou à laisser,* and in either case does not impair the value of this thoroughly competent piece of work.

The number of German novels fitted for class-room use is so limited that one welcomes gladly any suitable addition to the list. For this reason, if for no other, an edition of Otto Ernst's "Asmus Sempers Jugendland" (Heath; 60 cents) is to be received with satisfaction. As a specimen of fiction it certainly does not rank with a dozen or more other German novels which might be mentioned, but in the twelve years that have elapsed since its publication it has won for itself a place in the hearts of the German people, whose methodical daily life and higher spiritual aspirations it mirrors with equal fidelity. This faithful but unobtrusive portrayal of German life and customs and the ethical import of the novel make it especially adapted for study in the schools. The editor is Prof. Carl Osthaus, of Indiana University, who has managed to abridge the text with unusual skill. There are excellent notes and a full vocabulary.

Two new German science readers have recently been issued by American publishing firms. One of these is entitled "Technical and Scientific German" and is edited by Prof. E. V. Greenfield, of Purdue University (Heath; $1). There are, first of all, selections of an elementary character on physics and chemistry. Then follow a number of articles chosen from the files of the periodical *Die Welt der Technik,* which, though somewhat off the path of the natural sciences, are of a generally scientific nature. The human interest of these articles does much to relieve the dulness which is likely to characterize a book of this sort. There are notes and a vocabulary, as well as a brief introduction, which has the praiseworthy feature of calling particular attention to and explaining the "participial construction" so common in German scientific prose.

"A Scientific German Reader," by Prof. Herbert Z. Kip, of Vanderbilt University (Oxford University Press; $1) contains material from eight branches of science, including an especially interesting selection on anthropology. The elaborate notes are intended to supply collateral information and to stimulate the student to further reading. No attempt has been made to grade the selections. It is probable, however, that there are few points of difficulty which the vocabulary does not cover. Many illustrations are scattered through the text.

Of the making of German grammars there is no end, but the production of even one grammar which differs essentially from its neighbors is such a rarity as to deserve a special chronicle. Profs. Philip S. Allen and Paul H. Phillipson, of the University of Chicago, have succeeded in producing such a work in their "First German Grammar" (Ginn; $1). Although the claim is put forth that the book is adapted to any method of teaching, it is evident that it would best fit into the direct method or some approximation to it. The grammar is taught inductively and one point at a time by means of a number of sentences at the beginning of each lesson, and on these sentences are based all the German questions and English exercises which follow. Everywhere phrases, not words, are used as the units of speech. Cumulative effect is obtained by constant repetition, and grammatical points are supposed to be learned for the most part unconsciously. An element of self-consciousness, foreign to the "natural" methods, appears, however, in the frequent allusions to the facts of English grammar, where even the simplest terminology is explained—the editors proceeding throughout on the justifiable assumption that nothing is to be taken for granted from the pupil. English sentences for translation into German are especially numerous, and seem, on the whole, to have achieved a fair resemblance to everyday speech. The book makes an uncommonly agreeable impression, though one or two preliminary doubts suggest themselves. There is, the authors assert, sufficient material for two years, if desired. One wonders whether some condensation of the material might not have been admissible in the interest of more rapid progress. The presence of paradigms (if only in an appendix), in order to sum up and secure what has been learned piecemeal, might also prove advantageous. But the proof of a grammar is the using of it, and experience will have to determine these points.

Kron's "German Daily Life" (Dutton; 70 cents) is a reissue of the book formerly published by Newson & Co. Though it has undergone no revision since its first appearance in 1899, it may still be recommended to such as wish a reader which gives in simple German fairly full information on the various topics of German life, manners, and institutions. There are in it both solider substance and better linguistic drill than can be found in the type of "travel-reader" which has come into vogue of recent years, with its thin rill of narrative and its huge wash of sentimentality. It is to be hoped that the compact, unrelieved appearance of the pages may not prove a deterrent to its use. The text is issued without any paraphernalia beyond a convenient index.

"Lese-Uebungen für Kinder" (Heath; 35 cents), by Martin Schmidhofer, supervisor of German in the Chicago public schools, is intended primarily to meet the needs of English-speaking pupils who take up the study of German in the grades. The first and main part, with its pictures, word-lists, and simple sentences, resembles a primer. A short second part contains some well-known children's rhymes. There is also an appendix, with a few songs and their musical settings.

A modest compilation of "Deutsche Anekdoten für die Schule" has been made by Prof. Lilian L. Stroebe, of Vassar (Heath; 15 cents). These fifty-nine anecdotes are simple in language and construction, and should prove useful for dictation, memorizing, or oral drill.

A volume of "Short Stories for Oral German," by Miss Anna Woods Ballard and Dr. Karl A. Krause (Scribner; 80 cents), has appeared in the Walter-Krause German series, which is edited in accordance with the demands of the direct method. Each anecdote is followed by a set of questions in German. There is a grammatical synopsis and a vocabulary.

In the same series Prof. A. Appelmann, of the University of Vermont, has edited Hans Arnold's "Fritz auf Ferien" (50 cents). The text of the story is divided into sections of a page or more in length, followed in each instance by notes, questions, and grammatical exercises—all in German. The use of English is thus restricted to the vocabulary, and even here a liberal use is made of German synonyms.

"Vom grossen König und Anderen" (American Book Co.; 65 cents) is a collection of anecdotes, edited with notes, questions, and vocabulary, by Frederick Betz, of the East High School, Rochester, N. Y. No biographical facts are given, but the anecdotes contain much that is characteristic of the persons mentioned. Over half of the stories are about Frederick the Great, the others deal with later figures down to Bismarck and William II. The anecdotes are told in simple, direct style, and the vocabulary is limited to some 2,100 words. There is a list of German synonyms after each story. The editor should have noted that *Magistrat* does not mean "magistrate," as it is rendered in the vocabulary, but is a collective noun. A number of portraits by Karl Bauer have been reproduced for the text.

The most recent edition of Storm's "Immensee" is by Louis H. Dirks, of the Shortridge High School, Indianapolis (American Book Co.; 60 cents). The text is accompanied by notes, vocabulary, English exercises, *Fragen, grammatische Uebungen,* and illustrations! Exception may be taken only to the last-named feature: these pictures are more sentimental than one could wish in a story which is itself dangerously close to the border-line.

A new German author, Ilse Leskien, is introduced to the American public through the publication of four of her stories, edited by Mr. Bayard Quincey Morgan, of the University of Wisconsin (Oxford University Press; 40 cents). Even the editor is unable to furnish more than the meagrest information concerning the writer, who, however, deserves a wider audience because of the quiet distinction of her style. Of the four selections, the best is the title-story, "Schuld." All approximate the American short-story rather than the German Novelle. They seem to be suitable for fairly elementary work. The editing,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which is carefully done, includes the usual notes, vocabulary, and composition-exercises. There are two interesting innovations: the vocabulary has various intentional omissions in order to stimulate systematic drill in the compounding of words; and, secondly, helps to translation are supplied by an appendix, to insure the consultation of which the editor has given frequent references in vocabulary and notes, and the student can get his translation only by looking up such references.

Prof. Eduard Prokosch and Charles M. Purin are the authors of a "Konversations- und Lesebuch" (Holt; 90 cents), which is intended for second- or third-year work in German. It is their conviction that the direct method will achieve a complete victory within a few years, pending which consummation the present book is offered as suitable for the transitional period. The basic principle on which the book is built is the theory that, while the first acquisition of an active vocabulary must proceed from object-teaching, its increase comes from reading. The selections appear to be carefully graded in accordance with this theory, and present a variety of material, both descriptive and anecdotal. They are for the most part composed or freely adapted by the editors. A set of questions and a grammatical drill, both entirely in German, follow each selection. The use of English is thus relegated to the vocabulary.

"Das deutsche Heft" has been prepared by the German faculty of the Washington Irving High School, New York, for notebook work during the first year of study. It is intended to provide a convenient frame-work which shall preserve the record of the pupil's observations and discoveries. Classified sections are devoted to nouns, adjectives, and verbs. The treatment of noun-classes seems unusually elaborate, but may justify itself in practice; there is certainly no short cut to this most difficult portion of German grammar. The Heft is accompanied by a teacher's manual, with directions for uses. (American Book Co.; 24 cents.)

ITALIAN.

The section of the Oxford Dante containing the "De Monarchia" has been separately issued by the Clarendon Press, with a brief introduction on "The Political Theory of Dante," by W. H. V. Reade, whose "Moral System of Dante's Inferno" is well and favorably known. His new essay, however, is altogether too casual to increase either his own reputation or the understanding of the "De Monarchia."

SPANISH.

In writing "A Spanish Grammar for Beginners" (Allyn & Bacon; $1.25 net), Professor De Vitis has aimed at producing a book at once more practical and attractive than any similar volume on the market. The publishers have aided the author with beautiful typography and copious illustration. Only use in the classroom will determine the question of superior practicability, but a superficial examination shows that the book has many excellent pedagogical features. The vocabularies are short; there is evident an admirable sense of perspective, and matters of supreme difficulty and importance are emphasized at the expense of things of lesser moment. At the same time, the grammar is sufficiently complete to serve the purpose of the ordinary student. The chapters on the modal auxiliaries are especially valuable. A few lessons are devoted to mercantile Spanish.

Although Professors Espinosa and Allen entitle their book "An Elementary Spanish Grammar" (American Book Company; $1.24), it is far less elementary than many others on the market. In fact, one is impressed at once with the scientific completeness of statement throughout. The excellent treatise on pronunciation is probably the best to be found in any American grammar of Spanish. The exercises are practical, and there are many other good features. The book contains many half-tone illustrations of Spanish and South American scenes.

A work like "Pitman's Spanish Commercial Reader," by G. R. Macdonald (London: Pitman), proves that England is waking up to a realization of the importance of a knowledge of commercial Spanish. This reader will be no less serviceable to the American than to the English student of business Spanish. The selected articles deal with nearly all the arts and industries.

"A First Spanish Reader," by Roessler and Remy (American Book Company; 68 cents), consists of anecdotes and easy material for reading. There are numerous questions for conversation based on the exercises read. The book is attractively illustrated with half-tones and pen-drawings by Clarence Rowe.

As a writer of short stories, Pedro de Alarcón is incomparably the most amusing of all the Spaniards who have attempted this genre. Ten years ago Professor Giese edited a classroom edition of the "Novelas Cortas de Alarcón" (Ginn; 75 cents). A reprint of this popular work has just appeared in a new dress.

"A Trip to South America" is the title of a new Spanish composition book by S. A. Waxman (Heath; 50 cents). There is an account in Spanish of the tour of two young Americans around the southern continent, and on this the exercises in composition are based. The book may also be used as a basis for conversation.

Professors Méras and Roth, in their "Pequeño Vocabulario" (Heath; 20 cents), give a list of 1,500 strictly necessary Spanish words. Teachers will find this little book a useful aid to the acquisition of a working vocabulary in Spanish.

PORTUGUESE.

"Portugal, an Anthology" (Oxford University Press; $2.75), edited with English versions by George Young, formerly Secretary of Legation, Lisbon, with a Preface by Dr. Theophilo Braga, ex-President of the Portuguese Republic, represents a commendable endeavor to convey to English-speaking persons some idea of the charm of Portuguese verse, ancient and modern, popular and artificial. The editor and translator, for he is both—providing, as he does, the original Portuguese text and a juxtalinear verse rendering in English of his own—has spent some time in Portugal as a member of the diplomatic corps of Great Britain. He displays the wholesome tendency of the trained European diplomat (would that our American diplomats evinced it!) to acquaint himself not only with the language of the country in which he is stationed, but also with the beauties of its literature. There is a Preface in Portuguese by the first President of the Portuguese Republic, a well-meaning man of many mistakes. For those who know at first hand the history of Portuguese literature this prefatory note will be somewhat irritating, unless they are already aware of the tendency of that noted polygraphist to make unwarranted statements, especially when it is a question of Spanish or Portuguese priority in the matter of original composition. Mr. Young makes no pretension of thoroughness in his work. It would, therefore, be unfair to find fault with him for devoting some 50 pages of a total of 165 to ballads of earlier and more recent date, 45 to Gil Vicente, and only some 70 to the vast possibilities presented by the great range of Portuguese lyric production extending from the days of the Galician troubadours of the thirteenth century down to our times. One might wish, however, that King Denis were represented more worthily than he is (with but a single poem to his credit here), and one wonders at the exclusion of all the noted poets of the long period between the sixteenth century Camoens and the nineteenth century João de Deus Ramos. It is, furthermore, rather venturesome to date what Mr. Young calls "Old Ballads" as of the year 1000 in their inception; in all probability the beginnings of both Spanish and Portuguese balladry must be placed several centuries later. The English versions of Mr. Young are not infrequently effective, and upon occasion they are even quite dainty, as when he is rendering some winsome snatch from the verse of Gil Vicente, who is evidently his favorite writer. But some of the versions are obviously crude and need revision. Musical notation is added for some of the more modern ballads.

RUSSIAN.

"A Graduated Russian Reader," by Henry Riola (Dutton; $1.75 net), is a reissue of a book first published in 1879. It consists of some two hundred pages of easy texts, carefully accented, provided with a few notes, and followed by an adequate vocabulary. Most of the selections deal with episodes from Russian history or introduce the student to Russian classics. Two strictures may be made on this modest volume. A collection of short, disconnected passages is not so well adapted to beginners in Russian as a long text, such as one of Turgenev's novels. For the most serious initial difficulty of the Slavic tongues is their vast store of new words, apparently entirely unrelated to those of the Western languages. This can at least be mitigated and some degree of power can be gained by confining the attention to one author. In the second place, Mr. Riola's choice of texts was decidedly old-fashioned, even when his book was first printed. One may suspect that he drew much material from readers used in Russian schools. He grants space to such bygone names as Karamzin, Dmitriev, and Khemnitser, while Tolstoy receives only nine pages and Turgenev seven, and Nekrasov is not represented at all. Nevertheless, these drawbacks do not prevent the volume from being a welcome and valuable addition to our scanty store of Russian textbooks. It might well be used in class after the completion of Boyer and Speranski's admirable "Russian Reader."

"A First Russian Reader," by Percy Dearmer and Vyacheslav A. Tananevich (Clarendon Press; 1s. 6d. net), contains about twen-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ty-five pages of easy texts, selected from Tolstoy, provided with excellent and copious notes, and with a full vocabulary. It is well adapted for use as a Russian primer, because of its low price and its good workmanship.

Nevill Forbes's "First Russian Book" (Oxford University Press; 85 cents net) consists mainly of lists of Russian words and phrases, with brief explanations of the declension and syntax of the noun, adjective, and pronoun. There are no exercises for translation or composition. The chapter on pronunciation is inadequate and unsatisfactory. Possibly the book may be of service to teachers who are conducting conversation classes in Russian. As an aid to persons seeking to gain a reading knowledge of the language, it is of almost no value.

SCANDINAVIAN.

In the case of the Scandinavian languages textbook-making faces one great difficulty. Provision must be made, on the one hand, for those who are brought up, more or less exclusively, in the foreign idiom, but are generally innocent of the most elementary conceptions of grammar; and on the other, for the native-born who have some training in foreign languages, but to whom Scandinavian is entirely new. On the whole it cannot be said that this difficulty has been met successfully in the textbooks mentioned below, their contributions being confined to wooden vocabularies and scattering notes which rarely dwell satisfactorily on idioms.

Thus in Andrew A. Stomberg's edition of Tegnér's "Fritjofs Saga" (Rock Island, Ill.: Augustana Book Concern; 75 cents), notwithstanding its twenty pages of notes, which are for the most part concerned with explanations of the mythological allusions in the great poem, there is an almost absolute lack of grammatical-syntactical comment, of which Flom's edition had by far too much. The text of the poem seems commendably free from misprints. This cannot be said of the remainder of the book, which contains a number of deplorable errors of statement, as well as occasional solecisms.

The text editions from the hand of A. Louis Elmquist exhibit somewhat more attention to idioms and a scrupulously exact workmanship, coupled, we regret to say, with a curiously cut-and-dried manner of treatment. Of introduction or other helps towards the understanding of the text there is next to nothing in them. Even in the case of "Fänrik Ståls Sägner" (Augustana Book Concern; 75 cents) a bare three pages are devoted to an account of Runeberg's life and works. This, we submit, is pretty scant measure for Finland's greatest poet. In other respects this is the best-edited text of the series. The amusing little one-act "Det Ringer" ("The Telephone Rings"), by H. Nyblom (Stockholm: in Bonnier's College Series of Textbooks, as also the following), is an effective skit on the telephone nuisance. It is admirably adapted to form the basis of conversational exercises. Selma Lagerlöf's "En Herrgårdssägen" (1910) is perhaps her most finished novel. It is fortunate indeed that it presents no particular difficulties to elementary students of the language. The same is true to a still greater degree of her "Nils Holgerssons underbara resa genom Sverige" (1912). A happy selection of twelve episodes from it will give the student an impression of the author's calm strength, quiet humor, and immense resourcefulness in epic invention. It is to be regretted, however, that this glorified, and now world-famous, elementary textbook of Swedish geography should not be in the student's hands in its delightful entirety. The illustrations, good as they are, could be spared for a map of Sweden.

In his "Swedish Phonology" (Chicago: The Engberg-Holmberg Publication Co.), Professor Elmquist has presented the essential facts of Swedish pronunciation in a thoroughly trustworthy fashion. This little treatise, written as a supplement to the same scholar's Swedish Grammar, ought to be in the hands of every teacher of the subject. Particularly useful will be found the brief account of the recent changes in orthography, which have transformed the look of the printed page. Much would have been gained by a frankly graphic presentation of the difficult accentual problems met with in Swedish.

It is hard to see how publishers can accept, and an association of teachers adopt, books so altogether faulty in some respects as J. A. Holvik's "Beginner's Book in Norse" (Minneapolis: Augsburg Publishing House; revised ed.; $1.25), especially when comparatively slight changes might have brought the book up to scientific standards. As it is, certain chapters, such as the one on pronounciation, are so poor that the work is of no use to students not to the manner born. On the other hand, there is good pedagogical sense shown in the arrangement of the grammatical material. The reading matter is attractive and the drill, conversation, and composition exercises based on it deserve praise. There are thirty-five photographs of things Norwegian.

Granting the necessity of an advanced reader for Norwegian, Holvik and Eikeland's "Second Book in Norse" (Augsburg Publishing House; $1.25) ought to meet all reasonable demands. The thirty-eight selections are well graded, and should convey a fair idea of Norwegian prose and poetry during the nineteenth century. In the notes we miss the brief and pointed characterizations of authors and works which form one of the excellences of Olson's reader.

Holvik and Eikeland's edition of Ibsen's noble play of "Kongsemnerne" ("The Pretenders"; Augsburg Publishing House; 90 cents) is designed only for advanced students, and is carried out on original lines. All illustrative material is in Norwegian. Besides very satisfactory notes and a vocabulary of the rarer words, this comprises well-executed chapters on the history of the Norwegian kingdom, on what constitutes dramatic composition, on the dramatic plan and the language and style of the play, and on its place in Ibsen's development.

SOME AFRICAN DIALECTS.

The dialects of the Gold Coast have been thoroughly studied by the Basel Evangelical Mission Society. We possess a good grammar of the Akwapim dialect of Ashanti, by H. R. Riis, published in 1853, to which a dictionary and 268 native proverbs are attached. A curious little book "Mfantsi Grammar," by D. L. Carr and J. P. Brown, appeared at the Cape Coast in 1868, in which the accents had all to be put in by hand, and which gave an account of the Fante dialect. Since then the remarkable activity of J. G. Christaller has furnished the student of African languages not only with an excellent "Grammar of the Asante and Fante Language" (Basel, 1875), a complete translation of the Bible (third edition in 1905), and "Tshi Proverbs" (Basel, 1879), containing 3,600 proverbs, but also with a "Dictionary of the Asante and Fante Language" (Basel, 1881). The author was awarded a gold medal of 300 francs by the Institut de France for his Grammar, but the Dictionary is a far more important production. This work, in its closely packed 672 pages, not only gives a thorough account of the language, but also provides the reader with a series of appendices, among which those that contain the Geography and History of the Gold Coast and Expressions of Ethnological Interest are of especial value to the ethnologist. Mr. R. S. Rattray, in his "Ashanti Proverbs" (Oxford University Press), translated from the original with grammatical and anthropological notes, has selected 830 of Christaller's proverbs and has provided them with translations and grammatical and ethnographic notes, thus offering an acceptable text with which to begin the study of Ashanti. The ethnologist will be grateful to him for the arrangement of the proverbs according to subjects, especially for the first chapter, "A Belief in a Supreme Being, Animism, Fatalism, Minor Deities, and Charms," etc., but few will be ready to follow him in his dissent, with Christaller, from Major Ellis who, in his "The Tshi-Speaking Peoples of the Gold Coast of West Africa," insists that the God Nyankupon is not a conception of the native mind, but a god borrowed from Europeans, and only thinly disguised. Rattray thinks that the proverbs which contain mention of this Supreme Being and which are used by the graybeards of the interior are a refutation of Major Ellis's opinion. But since Nyankupon is supposed to have come into existence on Saturday, it is quite evident that we have before us a Christian or Mohammedan conception of the Deity. The savages of Africa received their seven days' week from Europe or from the Arabs, hence the connection of Nyankupon with the Saturday is to be explained either as being derived from the Mohammedan idea of God, who existed on the first day of creation, or from the idea of God's precedence to Christ, to whom the Sunday is devoted more especially. Whichever way we look upon the matter, Rattray's and Christaller's explanation cannot be upheld. Indeed, the proverbs furnish us a complete proof that new conceptions are rapidly disseminated among the savages, for, although but a comparatively short time has passed since the Ashantis have come in contact with the Europeans, we find such saws as: "It would not be difficult to go to Europe, if it were not for the sea; all men would like to go to Europe, it is the opportunity they lack; it is the white man who sells knives, yet his head is overgrown with hairs; when you eat the white man's pay, you fight at the cannon's mouth." Apparently the last proverb does not imply the Ashantis' unwillingness to fight, for in the picture of the Paramount Chief and his sons, which faces the title-page, the august family parades not only two alarm clocks, but also half-a-dozen double-barrelled shotguns.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The war does not seem to interfere with the output of linguistic works in England, and it is curious to find at this time a translation from a German book which, besides being popular rather than scientific, is inflated with the significance of German science and apparently forgets many things done by English and French scholars. Although C. Meinhof's "An Introduction to the Study of African Languages" (Dutton; $1.75 net), translated by A. Werner, contains some interesting and even important data, such as the classification of the languages of Africa in three groups, the Hamitic, the Sudanese, and the Bantu, and the indication that ultimately the three may be found to be interrelated, most of the statements are obviously meant for the layman who may have no conception about the necessity of studying primitive tongues and African languages in particular. Hence such chapters as, Why Do We Study Primitive Languages? The Study of Sounds in Africa and its Relation to General Phonetics, Rhythm, and Melody in African Languages, The Problem and Aim of African Linguistics. Mr. Meinhof prides himself on having proved the unity of the Bantu languages and their relation to the Hamitic and the Sudanese groups, but Schleicher and Reinisch have earlier related the Bantu with the Semitic, which, in its turn, has been shown to be related to the Hamitic. Again, the most pretentious work on Bantu phonetics, by Homburger, appeared in 1913 in France. All these works, unfortunately, suffer from the incubus of Indo-Germanic philology, which is more concerned about building up a proto-language, a language which may never have existed, than about objective facts. Thus Homburger's work is merely a dictionary of starred forms, and Meinhof, too, is obsessed by the existence of a primitive proto-Bantu speech and the comparative purity of such an original African language. While, it is true, a large number of words in the present Bantu dialects already may have existed in proto-Bantu, the presence of a word in most of them is not yet a proof that it existed in the original tongue, any more than the presence of "auto" in the Romance languages proves its existence in Latin.

There are no pure languages, no matter how primitive they may be, and Meinhof's fallacy may be proved by considering the language of Angola, in which the dictionary gives nearly four hundred words of foreign origin, while J. McLaren's "A Concise Kaffir-English Dictionary" (Longmans; $1 net) gives nearly one hundred and fifty as derived from English and Dutch. If Egyptian or Arabic influence was very powerful among the Bantus, or Sudanese, or Hamites, we should expect to find a large number of words in many, if not all, Bantu languages, without their having existed in proto-Bantu. To prove the common origin of Bantu with any other group, it will be necessary to study it in connection with all languages, Asiatic and American as well. Only in such a manner will it be possible to build up a real comparative grammar, free from preconceived ideas and pet theories. It can be shown that African linguistics, so far as the Bantu group is concerned, is on the wrong track, when it considers the roots of words as primitive, and the classifying prefixes as having a separate existence. It may be true that the roots contain the original words in some cases; they certainly do not in a large number of instances. Bentley, in his Kongo Dictionary, gives *disa* "maize," which betrays its origin only in the plural, *masa*. Similarly, all words in Dutch and English which begin with an *s*, followed by a consonant, drop this *s* in Kaffir, to appear only as a fourth-class prefix in *isi*, hence *tolopu* "a yoke-tie," from Dutch "strop," *pili* "mirror," from Dutch "spiegel," *kolo* "school," *kepe* "ship," from Dutch "schip," and so forth. This process may be well illustrated in the Bantu word for "eye," which is represented in Swahili by *jito*. It would be hopeless to build up a primitive stem from it. Only the plural *mato*, which in the other Bantu languages occurs as *matlo, mehlo, meso, miso*, show that it is related to Malay, Mon-Khmer, Maori *mata*, Egyptian *merti* and even Greek ὀμ-μάτιον. This is not an accidental resemblance, but points to a fundamental unity. With the aid of Indo-European philology, the real relationship is obscured, and not advanced, by building up a proto-Bantu, and in that pretended thoroughness of German linguistic science, which, for African philology, is represented by Meinhof, lies a real danger.

SCOTCH DIALECT.

It is now more than a generation since Sir James A. H. Murray, in his "Account of the Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland," laid the foundation for the scientific study of the Scottish dialects. He hoped that similar studies would be made of at least the seven or eight main dialects, and that thus material would be collected for a new and complete Scots dictionary. Something has indeed been done since, and the Scottish Branch of the English Association has set about preparing the dictionary; but until the appearance of Sir James Wilson's volume, "Lowland Scotch, as spoken in the Lower Strathearn District of Perthshire" (Oxford University Press; 5s. net), no worthy second in the series so admirably started by Murray had been published. It is none too soon; for, while workers are slowly being equipped, the dialects are degenerating and many of their most interesting features are passing away. The special dialect studied by Sir James Wilson is spoken on that part of the Highland border which lies along the valley of the Earn, with its centre in the town of Dunning. For the recording of the speech of this locality, the author has adopted a phonetic scheme which, while it avoids extreme subtleties, gives an adequately precise and easily grasped key to pronunciation. The grammar of the speech is described, and full tables of idioms with their English equivalents are given. These are followed by classified lists of words, by a collection of proverbs and characteristic sayings, and by a number of riddles, children's rhymes, mummers' verses, and the like; and the volume closes with a dictionary. It will thus be evident that we have here not merely a contribution to linguistics, but a document of high value for the folklorist and the student of social customs and national character as well. Any Scot who has been brought up to speak the dialect will find the volume full of delightful reminiscences; and all students of comparative linguistics will find abundant information hitherto practically inaccessible, and many interesting puzzles. There is no question of the author's intimate knowledge of his native speech; and if there are evidences that his general philological training is not quite on the same level, the occasional slips will not mislead the scholar and are not likely to disturb the general reader. The book is well done and was well worth doing.

HISTORY.

ANCIENT AND MEDIÆVAL.

Professor Morey's "Outlines of Ancient History," itself in the main a composite of the same author's "Outlines of Roman History" and "Outlines of Greek History," has now appeared under the title "Ancient Peoples" (American Book Co.; $1.50), with subtractions and additions that yield a net increase of eighty-four pages. In accordance with the bad practice of its publishers, with which Rand McNally Company conforms, it has no date on its title-page; but the copyright was taken out in 1915. The revision has not been a perfunctory matter, but it has been directed much more towards improving the pedagogical than the scientific qualities of the book. Indefensible statements like the following appear or reappear in it: "A very ancient non-Semitic race—the Sumerians or Akkadians," "Sargon I, King of Akkad, who is said to have flourished in 3800 B. C—or, as some scholars say, 2800 B. C.," "the colossal Sphinx is perhaps the most ancient example of independent sculpture existing in the world," the Phœnicians became "the greatest commercial nation of ancient times," "the trees of Greece vary from the pine and oak forests in the north to the lemons, oranges, and date palms in the south," "vases (of Crete) covered with relief work representing warriors, gladiators, wrestlers, and pugilists," Sparta "the typical city state of the Dorian race," "the chief magistrates (of Athens) continued (under Clisthenes) to be the nine archons, who were chosen by lot, not now from the upper classes, but from candidates presented by all the demes" (Cf., however, p. 156), "military competitions . . . between companies . . . sent from the different towns of Attica," "after the battle of Ipsus Macedonia fell into the hands of Cassander, who received it as his share of Alexander's empire," "the old Egyptian god Serapis," "Janus, god of the opening year, January," "Scipio Aemilianus—the nephew of the great Scipio Africanus," "Gaul became a seat of Roman colonies," etc. The book is abundantly and, on the whole, excellently, illustrated, but many of the alleged portraits are of dubious value. It is high time, in any case, that the tonsured priest of Isis (p. 373) should cease masquerading as Scipio Africanus. Professor Morey writes clearly and vigorously; the limitations of his work on the educational side are due to the type of book he has been set to write rather than to any lack of skill on his part.

The cardinal defect of this type of textbook is that it is invariably uninteresting. It mentions without describing too many persons and things; it degenerates too easily into a bare list of names and tags, or into a series of formulas that are meaningless to a boy and unacceptable to an adult. No one, young or old, would think of reading one of these books for pleasure. Nor is this defect avoided by adding the mediæval field to the ancient and reducing the old-fashioned narrative element to a minimum, as Mr. Ashley has done in his "Early European Civilization" (Macmillan; $1.50 net). Regarding the first half of this book, "Ancient Civilization," we have al-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ready expressed our opinion (*Nation,* May 6, 1915, p. 512) that it is the work of an effective teacher, but gives to the pupil what he could more profitably get in the classroom, viz.: well-considered judgments and summaries. Now that we have the whole work in one cover, we can survey a programme designed to meet the wishes of those who would open the high-school course in history, not by general history (God forbid that they should desire to have that discredited thing resurrected!) but by a general survey of the world's progress from the glacial age to the death of Louis XIV. We have examined this programme with interest, and have compared it with the "Ancient Civilization" (American Book Company; 60 cents), in which Dr. Wolfson attempts to give to pupils "who can devote only a brief amount of time to the study of Ancient History before taking up the study of Mediæval and Modern History . . . some idea of the growth of the ancient nations, and some idea of their achievements and their qualities." This can be done, it appears, without mentioning the names of Solon, Themistocles, Xerxes, or Alcibiades. It is undoubtedly "some idea" of Plato that "he explained life to his pupils on the theory that the most important thing is not what we do or say, but what we think of things," and it is "some idea" of Aristotle that "he was not as deep a thinker as Plato, but his influence has been many times greater because his writings have been much more easily understood"; but we may at least wonder how much better off the pupils are who have got these ideas than are those who have been left in utter darkness.

There is an inherent difficulty, moreover, in all these brief presentations of civilization, that they leave a vague and fugitive impression upon the mind even of the adult; the subject seems to have neither head nor tail, to be surrendered without any definition of contents to the caprice of the man who makes the book. Among the questions that appear on entrance examination papers in history there are none on which matriculants can be depended upon to make fools of themselves with greater regularity than those dealing with social, economic, and intellectual conditions. Perhaps that is a reason for giving them nothing else to study in their preparatory work; perhaps, however, it is a reason for giving them something different. What this something different may be it is not easy to say, but in England boys seem to get along tolerably well on narrative history of a biographical order told in sufficient detail to be vivid and dramatic. It is true they leave long periods of ancient history, and these by no means the least significant, untouched. The remedy for us may lie in selecting our periods or topics with less regard for tradition than is customary in England and in eliminating, not the descriptions of men and things, but the men and things themselves of the less significant epochs, in order that we may describe and interpret more fully those that are left.

"The Story of the Old World," by Drs. Elson and MacMullan (World Book Company; 72 cents), and "The Story of Old Europe and Young America," by Professors Mace and Tanner (Rand McNally Company; 65 cents), are alike attempts to carry out the suggestions of the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association "to provide for the sixth grade a suitable text on the European background of American history." The latter of the two books is distinctly the better. It takes its history more seriously, without being too heavy. The Story of the Old World tends to make the narrative a setting for anecdotes and *bon mots.* Both are written with understanding and skill and cannot help being interesting to young people. But Drs. Elson and MacMullan have followed too slavishly the precept, "Facts be damned; the interest is everything." The name Homer, it appears, means "the author," acropolis "city height," aristocracy "rule by rich men," benevolent "well-wishing and is composed of two Latin words: *bene,* well, and *velere,* to wish." It was Pericles, we are informed, of whom "it has been well said that he found the city of brick and left it of marble." The Museum in Athens is said to have been a "splendid building." Solon seems to have introduced ostracism and a "Court of Justice consisting of archons and ex-archons—which met on the hill of Ares, and was called the Areopagus." Clisthenes abolished the property qualification for office, and Socrates "was brought before the council of the Areopagus." Claudius Ptolemæus is dated in 139 B. C. and put in the Alexandrian epoch. Cæsar was assassinated in 44 B. C. "more than five hundred years since the kings had been driven out and Rome had become a republic." When the textbooks make errors of this sort, how can accuracy be expected of the pupils?

The present emphasis on social rather than on the old-fashioned political history is reflected in Roscoe L. Ashley's "Mediæval Civilization" (Macmillan; $1.50 net). It covers the ages of transition from the Barbarian invasions to the Peace of Westphalia. As the numbering of the pages and paragraphs indicates, it is a continuation of a volume on ancient civilization. It is fairly well provided with good illustrations, maps, review questions, and other formal equipment of a textbook. But many errors and frequent looseness or indefiniteness of statement betray either ignorance or haste—or both. In fact, the book gives the impression of being written by a maker of textbooks rather than by a scholarly teacher.

AMERICAN.

Miss Eleanor E. Riggs's "An American History" (Macmillan; $1 net) is evidently intended for use in the South. There can be no objection to such a book, provided it is accurate, fair, and well written. As to fairness, no serious criticism can be made of this book. It is generous to the North in all points of controversy and self-restrained in dealing with the Southern cause. It is true that now and then an approving use of the phrase Southern rights slips in, but not in an aggressive sense. Probably there is, also, too much freedom in describing the abuse of the carpet-baggers, since that is a subject which the present generation is willing to forget; but this is not a bad error. More numerous are the sins against accuracy. For example, we are told that in 1763 Massachusetts, and not Virginia, was the largest colony, and that the total population of the English colonies was "upwards of a million," when the usual estimate is about 1,500,000 (p. 130). The appearance of the Methodists in the Carolinas and Georgia is placed too early (p. 131). It is surprising that "the average income from a tobacco plantation was from fifteen to thirty thousand dollars a year" (p. 139). Equally startling is the assertion that "men whose parents had a humble occupation" in colonial times could not be elected tax-collectors or sheriffs (p. 143). Shucking and not shelling the corn was the main occupation of the people at a husking-bee, or corn-shucking (p. 145). Miss Riggs accepts "the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence," now generally given up. She also upholds the Marcus Whitman myth (p. 312), and she thinks the Regulation in North Carolina was a revolt against the king, whereof, we are assured "the effect caused the people" to organize the revolution (p. 159). Many inept expressions are encountered in the book, as "among his congregation" (p. 131), "to open up public schools" (p. 135), and "he represented one of the most highly educated of the men of his community" (p. 132). The illustrations are generally good, although there are some imaginative pictures which should long ago have been relieved of service, notably the mounted Marion leaping over a log, and the well-remembered treaty of Penn with the Indians.

SOUTH AFRICA.

"A History of South Africa" (Longmans; $1), by William Charles Scully, gives in brief and easily grasped form a good account of the development of South Africa, from the days of Prince Henry the Navigator down to the establishment of the Union in 1910. The author knows how to pack a considerable amount of information into a clear and readable form, and adds many interesting illustrations. He does not pretend to original research, but utilizes the results of the work of such scholars as Theal, Cory, and Leibbrandt. He is at too much pains to give the names of all the early governors and to enumerate the innumerable wars with the natives; and he gives too scant attention to the Boer War and the years of remarkable development and coöperation between Briton and Boer which followed; but on this recent period there is much other material easily available.

THE WAR.

"The Story of the Map of Europe" (Scott, Foresman; 60 cents), by L. P. Benezet, Superintendent of Schools in La Crosse, Wis., grew out of a series of talks by the author on the causes of the great war. His audiences were of widely different character, reaching from pupils in the grades to teachers, business men, and boards of education. The book reflects something of the character of the audiences, but on the whole it will seek its level best among high-school pupils and secondary teachers of limited knowledge and training. Nearly two hundred pages are given to tracing the leading factors in the history of Europe from the time of the appearance of the Indo-European-speaking peoples onward to the beginning of the twentieth century. In less than half that number of pages the author explains the immediate causes of the war, its effects, and the way the map of Europe ought to be redrawn to satisfy racial aspirations. He illustrates his text by a large number of maps, but they are so sketchy that it is doubtful whether they will convey any very clear notions. There are also many inaccuracies in the text itself. The author's panacea for Europe's ills is democratic control, the expected blessings of which he overestimates. The chief merit of the book is

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

also its chief defect: the infinitely complex problems of race, nationality, party-government, and economic rivalry in Europe are all made to seem so very simple and easy. However, to compass the subject and to present it with simplicity is a *tour de force* for which the author deserves credit; it is doubtful whether a more satisfactory brief account of the underlying causes of the war exists which may be recommended for immature high-school pupils.

Stephen Paget's "Essays for Boys and Girls" (Macmillan; $1.75), is, according to its subtitle, "a first guide toward the study of the war." It consists of a number of rambling, chatty essays, which in style are reminiscent of Ruskin's manner. Mr. Paget sketches in turn the history and character of each of the warring nations, and aims to stir the deeper feelings of faith, patriotism, and responsibility in the boys and girls whom he is addressing. But we are doubtful whether his style is suited to accomplish his purpose. Scattered through the volume are a number of interesting cartoons from *Punch*, which have nothing in particular to do with the text.

The second volume of the "Handbook of the European War" (H. W. Wilson Co.; $1), edited by Alfred Bingham, is made up of reprints from the speeches and writings of prominent statesmen and authors—Bethmann-Hollweg, Kuno Francke, Belloc, Lloyd George, Cardinal Mercier, Brandes, Roosevelt, C. W. Eliot, A. L. Lowell, Norman Angell, E. J. Clapp, and many others. It is rather a motley but convenient collection that can be used for easy reference to matter which can only be found in newspaper files or in books that are not likely to be in school libraries. The first volume, edited by S. S. Sheip, dealt largely with the events which led up to the war. This second volume deals mainly with the effects of the war on international law, commerce, social conditions, and the peace movement, both in the countries at war and in the United States. It also contains a few of the justificatory speeches and articles which appeared subsequently to the official diplomatic correspondence on the causes of the war. The editor has sought to include selections which are fairly moderate in tone, and which present both sides of disputed questions.

FOR CHILDREN.

A good textbook in history for children must be well written, whatever its facts. It must be clear, dignified, and wholesome in expression. If the pupil cannot understand and grasp what is being told him, he is disgusted; if he finds the narrator talking down to his immature station, he rebels; and if he is stimulated to unnatural ideals by being fed on lurid stories, he is mentally damaged. These truths are reflected in one way or another in the three following volumes:

First is a book by Francis Parkman. A happy idea has led Miss Louise S. Hasbrouck to gather in one small volume some of the best stories in that classic work, "France and England in North America." They fit together with remarkable success, and the book as a book is harmonious in plan, although it can hardly be called a history of the conflict for possession of the interior of the continent. Among the stories related are those dealing with the attack on Deerfield, Braddock's defeat, the services of Robert Rogers, the siege of Fort William Henry, the capture of Louisburg, Abercrombie's attempt to capture Ticonderoga, and the fall of Quebec. Clearness, dignity, and wholesome incident abound. The book is well adapted to the end for which it is written, a supplementary reading book for children. It has as title "Rivals for America" (Boston: Little, Brown; 60 cents).

With somewhat the same purpose Messrs. Albert F. Blaisdell and Francis K. Ball have prepared "Heroic Deeds of American Sailors" (Boston: Little, Brown; 50 cents). Historical incident is again made to serve graphic narration, with the hope, as the authors declare, "of stimulating young people to further reading of maritime and other history." The subjects selected are such as "illustrate the perils and bravery of our heroes of the sea." They embrace many well-known stories, dressed up in such manner as the authors deem fit. Decatur's burning of the Philadelphia, Cushing's destruction of the Albemarle, Somers's ill-fated attempt to destroy the fleet of the Tripolitans, the battle between the Chesapeake and the Shannon, the encounter between the Enterprise and the Boxer, McDonough's victory on Lake Champlain, and the wreck of the Saginaw. Clear and vigorous description is not wanting, but the authors have probably run too far towards the sensational. Certainly, there is a tendency to introduce harrowing scenes, in the apparent belief that they will be popular with the boys. If this expectancy is realized, what must be the attitude of the girls? At any rate, there is a great difference between wholesome interest and hectic excitement, and in many of their chapters the authors seem to have failed to realize it.

In "The Story of Our Country," Books I and II, by Henry W. Elson and Cornelia E. MacMullen (World Book Co.; 72 cents), we have a simple beginning at American history by way of thrilling biographical incidents. In the second book, however, the authors doff the biographical method in some places and fall into ordinary history. They have sought to tell interesting stories, evidently with studied disdain for the critics. The ancient stories of Columbus and the egg and Marion's frugal dinner are made to do service, and we have an actual picture of the Pilgrim Fathers stepping from their shallop on to Plymouth Rock. There is, also, a large amount of imaginary dialogue in explanation of the motives of the leading characters. For example, we have a placid conversation in which Bradford, Winslow, and Miles Standish take part when there was doubt about the landing. We read this enlightening conversation: "'Let us land here by this large rock,' said William Bradford. 'The water is too shallow for our boat,' objected Edward Winslow. 'We can step on the rock,' replied the undaunted Miles Standish, 'and then wade through the water to the shore.' And that is what they did." The book is full of pictures that would crush the love of art in any child whom nature had not made irresponsive to art impressions.

"Children of History" (Little, Brown; 80 cents), by Mrs. Mary S. Hancock, is a collection of simple narratives of the childhood of some sixty great figures, from Romulus and Remus to Florence Nightingale. They are attractively illustrated in color and in black and white, and are told in such a way as to relate themselves to the common daily experience of the boys and girls of eight or nine for whom they are intended. Biographical material of this kind is the best means by which to give children an initial interest in history.

ECONOMICS.

In these days, when labor legislation is made so rapidly, a new book in that field is always welcome. The distinctive characteristics of the "Principles of Labor Legislation" (Harper; $2 net), by Prof. John R. Commons and Dr. John B. Andrews, is its comprehensiveness. No other book in English deals with the whole subject of labor legislation. For the first time we have a work which may be fairly said to equal in scope the well-known "Les Lois Ouvrières" by Paul Pic. This comprehensiveness, however, has its drawbacks. By including so much, the authors have been forced to treat some of the topics with extreme brevity, and the reader who wishes details must turn to more specialized sources. The necessity for compression has led to the severest pruning in those parts of the book that deal with the problems which the legislation is designed to solve. At times the authors have gone so far in this direction that the effective evaluation of the legislation is not possible on the basis of the facts given. It would have been a gain, for example, if they could have spared a little more space for the discussion of the problem of unemployment before plunging into the legislation.

The arrangement of the matter is not entirely satisfactory. In the main, the successive chapters deal with specific kinds of labor legislation, such as the minimum wage, hours of labor, safety and health, and unemployment, but a considerable amount of material relating to some of the subjects is brought together in a chapter on social insurance. The result is that when the reader has comfortably concluded the chapter on safety and health, he is again brought back to the same subject in the section of the chapter on social insurance in which workmen's compensation is discussed. The part of the work which breaks most new ground is the section dealing with administration. The authors argue strongly for the plan of consolidating the administration of all labor legislation in the hands of an industrial commission, which shall have power to issue orders. As Professor Commons was for some years a member of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, the pioneer commission, and is generally regarded as the foremost advocate of the commission plan, this part of the book may be considered an authoritative statement of the advantages of that plan of administration.

Mr. H. L. Gannt is well known as one of the chief exponents of scientific management. A disciple of Mr. F. W. Taylor, he has himself made an important contribution to the subject by devising the widely used "task and bonus" system of remuneration. In his "Industrial Leadership" (Yale University Press; $1), Mr. Gannt goes over much of the ground already covered in his "Work, Wages, and Profits," published some years ago. His view of industrial leadership is, however, more clearly outlined here than in the earlier volume, since the exposition is less cumbered with detail. The efficiency of organization, in his opinion, depends primarily on the selection of the best leaders. The task and bonus system, if the task setting is done on

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

scientific principles, offers the largest opportunity to develop from the ranks of the workers industrial leaders. Thus are the compatibility of scientific management and democracy revealed. When, however, Mr. Gannt passes to a discussion of problems in economic theory, he is not so successful. In a final chapter, for instance, Mr. Gannt discusses the relation of the industrial leader to the accountant. This discussion is based on the principle of elasticity of demand which Mr. Gannt apparently regards as a discovery of his own. He will be surprised to find on consulting an elementary textbook of economics how much more adequately the subject has been presented.

The motivation of economic conduct is attracting increasing attention from economists. Since the work of Veblen and of Sombart the theories of motive derived from the utilitarians and associationists have been considerably modified, and it is now recognized that the desire for gain is not so simple as it was formerly represented. In his delightful little book on "Inventors and Money-Making" (Macmillan; $1 net), Prof. F. W. Taussig discusses the part played in economic life by the instincts of contrivance, of domination, of collection, of social emulation, and of devotion. Professor Taussig has given much consideration to the instinct of contrivance as displayed in the work of inventors, and his conclusions here are of especial interest. In general, he is of the opinion that the prospect of gain, although not in itself important in arousing the instinct of contrivance in inventors of the first rank, is immensely effective in determining the direction in which the inventor turns his mind. It is to be regretted that Professor Taussig has not dealt more at length with the effect of social institutions upon the development of the various instincts. What he does say, although brief, is so much above the level of current discussion of the subject that the reader would have been glad to follow him further—even into a field where conjecture must chiefly rule.

No system of collective bargaining has attracted more attention in recent years than the agreement in the New York cloak and suit trade. The protocol, as the agreement is somewhat magniloquently called, has been the subject of exhaustive Government investigations and of numerous magazine articles. Mr. Julius Henry Cohen's "Law and Order in Industry" (Macmillan; $1.50 net) is, however, the first comprehensive account of the history of the agreement. The appearance of the book at this time is opportune, since the agreement has now been abandoned and renewed warfare declared. Mr. Cohen is well qualified for the task which he has assumed, since during almost the entire life of the agreement he has been counsel for the manufacturers. Mr. Cohen's contribution to the subject does not consist in the presentation of new facts, for all that he relates was already available in one form or another. The interest in his work lies almost entirely in the view which he presents as to the proper basis for collective agreements. According to this view, a large part of the questions which present themselves in the relations of employer and employee cannot be settled by agreement, but must be determined by quasi-judicial proceedings. Such questions as the "closed shop" and the "right to discharge," for example, present moral issues which cannot be compromised, but must be definitively decided. It is undoubtedly true that this theory has dominated the working of the protocol. When a troublesome question has been presented, both parties have at once proceeded to deliver ultimatums. Eminent outsiders—known, at first, as the Board of Arbitration and later as the Council of Conciliation—have then been convened to hear and decide the issue. The parties themselves have resolutely refused to do anything except to hire counsel to argue the case.

This method of carrying on collective bargaining differs widely from that pursued in the other great systems of trade agreements, in which the parties themselves endeavor by every possible means to reach a conclusion. Arbitration is more dreaded than a strike. The question naturally arises as to whether the method of judicial determination has justified itself. The protocol was signed in 1910. In 1914 it was only saved by the exertions of disinterested persons and the pressure of public opinion. In May, 1915, it was terminated, but was revived in July of that year. It has now been again brought to end. It is true that troublesome questions, for the major part growing out of the practical impossibility of standardizing piece prices, are involved in the working of the agreement. But these questions are no more difficult of solution than those presented in numerous other trades in which successful systems of collective bargaining are in operation. The path of success would appear to be marked not by more judicial determination, but by an honest and sustained effort by both parties to reach a solution.

There are few subjects of equal practical interest concerning which the public is less informed than the cost of marketing farm products. The most extraordinary misconceptions in this field gain currency with astonishing rapidity. One year, it is widely believed that the combination of the packers is responsible for the increasing price of beef. Another year, a crusade is inaugurated in the belief that the increase in the price of eggs is due to the speculative activities of the cold-storage houses. It is not to be expected that any number of careful studies will entirely prevent the rise of such misconceptions, but certainly Prof. L. D. H. Weld's book on "The Marketing of Farm Products" (Macmillan; $1.50 net) ought to restrict their circulation. It is only within very recent years that careful studies of problems in marketing have been made, but much has already been done in the way of clearing the ground of erroneous beliefs. Usually, the first result of careful study in a new field is that the investigator is profoundly impressed with the efficient working of the economic machinery. After all, things are not so bad. This is the stage which has been reached in the study of the marketing of farm products. Professor Weld's book in considerable part is a defence of the existing system. The advantage of speculation, the astonishing cheapness of transportation, and the enormous difficulty of the task of marketing the numerous foodstuffs are adequately described. On the other hand, there is very little of constructive suggestion.

The first volume of Prof. F. A. Fetter's "Economic Principles" (Century; $1.75) covers only part of the ground embraced by his "Principles of Economics." The practical applications of the principles have been reserved for a second volume, which will appear later. The treatment of the subject in the present work differs considerably from that followed in the earlier work. Professor Fetter departs in his terminology even more widely from current usage—even "marginal utility" now being taboo. The most important change, however, has been the separation of the dynamic from the static theory, the former having been relegated to a separate section, with an undoubted gain in clearness. The exercises appended to the older work are dropped from this volume, perhaps with the intention of including them in the second volume.

The new edition of J. K. Ingram's "History of Political Economy" (London: A. & C. Black) contains a brief introduction by Prof. R. T. Ely and a supplementary chapter by Prof. W. A. Scott. The text is that of the English edition of 1888, which differs slightly from that of the American edition of 1887. The supplementary chapter by Professor Scott brings the history from 1888 down to date and covers the developments in all important countries. It is a question whether such a work as that of Ingram can be supplemented or brought to date. Ingram's History, although widely used, was not essentially a history, but an argument in favor of a method of study. Unlike the usual history of the progress of a science, it was not written in order that readers might know the historical facts, but constituted a protest against the prevailing method of economic research. The historical data served merely as a vehicle for the argument. Moreover, Professor Scott apparently has little sympathy with Ingram's point of view. A large part of his chapter is devoted to the Austrian School, which Ingram would have disposed of in a very few sentences. The works which Ingram would have appraised highest are handled by Scott in the most summary manner. For example, Webb's "Industrial Democracy," which is perhaps of all recent works the one which embodies most the spirit of Ingram, and which has probably influenced economic thought more deeply than any book of recent years, is merely catalogued by Professor Scott in a list of "noteworthy contributions by Englishmen to economic history (sic)." Professor Scott apparently realized that his supplementary chapter was out of key with the rest of the work, for in a note to Ingram's concluding chapter, he says:

> Many of the statements made in this chapter need modification in the light of the development recorded in Chapter VII. . . . Inasmuch, however, as the chapter records Dr. Ingram's convictions at the time he completed his part of the history, it is allowed to stand without modification as a document throwing light upon his attitude towards some of the fundamental problems of the science.

The use of manuals of questions and exercises in connection with courses of elementary economics appears to be well established, especially in the larger colleges, where, on account of the size of the classes, instruction is given chiefly by lectures. Since the presentation of elementary economics is far from standardized, a manual is conveniently used only in connection with a particular text. Professor Day and Mr. Davis, therefore, in the preparation of their "Questions on the Principles of Economics" (Macmillan; 50 cents), have aimed at selecting those questions and exercises which will be most helpful when

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

used with Professor Taussig's "Principles of Economics." Considerable use has been made of other similar manuals, but much of the matter is new.

The revised edition of Prof. W. Z. Ripley's collection of reprints relating to "Trusts, Pools, and Corporations" (Ginn; $2.75 net) contains almost twice as many pages as the old edition. A few of the reprints included in the edition of 1905 have been omitted, but in the main the revision consists in the addition of new material, drawn chiefly from the reports of the Bureau of Corporations and from the decisions of the courts. The texts of the Sherman act, the Trade Commission law, and the Clayton act are included. The piquant prefatory notes to the Clayton act and the Trade Commission law make the reader regret the extreme editorial restraint which is shown in other parts of the volume.

SOCIOLOGY.

The popularity of Nathaniel C. Fowler's "Getting a Start" has led the publishers, Sully & Kleinteich, to bring out a further selection from his series of syndicate articles in the daily prints, under the title, "Beginning Right: How to Succeed" (50 cents net). Our inchoate democracy is avid of advice on the practical conduct of life. Mr. Fowler is sensible, plain, and aphoristic in style, frequently enforcing a point by some parable from the life of millionaire or urchin. For those who have never enjoyed the advantages of a home, these brief talks should be quite wholesome.

It is a little surprising to find E. A. Kirkpatrick's "Fundamentals of Sociology" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25 net) a rather small and elementary book; one is misled by the somewhat imposing title. It is a sort of easy and familiar survey of what the author, looking across from another field, has conceived to be the salient aspects of sociology. This procedure is excused by the remark that "freedom from having dwelt on details is an advantage rather than a disadvantage in getting and presenting a general view of a subject." However, this is no foolish, impressionistic product. It is written clearly and simply, and is arranged and developed with much judgment. It is not utopian and it is not preachy. Its author is not one of those "to whom God has revealed himself in the form of platitudes." It ought to be useful as a textbook in elementary sociology, especially in schools where it is desirable to give only a brief amount of time to the subject; and it should attract the general reader. Sets of exercises at the end of the several chapters "are intended to be suggestive to teacher and pupils rather than directive." The disproportionate amount of space given to education is justified by the belief that "education is now such an important phase of social life that every student of sociology should become familiar with its purposes and problems"; and it is hoped that the emphasis on this topic will "make the book most interesting for those preparing for the teaching profession." Naturally, this volume is sketchy, and contains little or nothing that is new, on the theoretic side. It is mainly practical sociology that occupies attention. A subtitle indicates that special emphasis has been laid upon communal and educational problems. But the arrangement and treatment are such that the purpose aimed at by the author stands a good chance of being realized. The bibliography is full as respects titles of works in English.

Gillette's "Constructive Rural Sociology" (Sturgis & Walton; $1.60 net) appears in a new edition, revised and enlarged. Originally interested in rural matters by the late Prof. C. R. Henderson, the author has developed the practical spirit characteristic of that sensible man, and has produced a book of great use, not only to the teacher and student, but to the intelligent farmer as well. In a general way, Professor Gillette takes into consideration all the most important aspects of rural life, and makes exceedingly practical suggestions as to their betterment. When he says that such and such an improvement ought to be made, the reader can generally add, to himself: "Yes, and it *can* be." In this respect the book before us forms a wholesome contrast to many another treatise on practical sociology. But the scientific perspective and background are not lacking, either: in the present edition there is added a chapter upon the general physical conditions of the United States in their relation to agriculture; and the vexed question of rural migration in its relation to the growth of urban communities has additional light shed upon it. The more books of this sort we have, the better for the reputation of the subject and for the cause of general education.

PSYCHOLOGY.

There is no lack of textbooks in psychology, mostly bad. Almost every psychologist of repute, or in search of it, writes one, or is tempted to do so, finding the others, in some respects at least, unsatisfactory, as they all indubitably are. For psychology is a science of recent and rapid growth and allows large scope for diversity of opinion even in matters that are fundamental; each author, each teacher has his own method of approach, his own aims and point of view; and, besides, good textbooks are, like *omnia præclara, tam difficilia quam rara,* and few is the number of contemporary psychologists competent to make them. It is a pleasure, therefore, to call attention to "A Beginner's Psychology," by Edward Bradford Titchener (Macmillan; $1 net), the fourth and best of the textbooks, other than the laboratory manual, published by this most indefatigable, learned, expert, and scientifically minded of psychologists. Among the ruck of books pretending to a similar purpose, this is a work of distinction. It may seem to some, perhaps, too full for a beginner, too fraught with the suggestion of controversies still in debate; but it should be remembered that the beginner the author has in mind is one to be taken seriously, not a dolt, but a student, one who has in him at least the possibility of a psychologist, though he should never take another course in the subject in his life. One of the distinctive features of the book consists in questions and exercises at the end of each chapter designed to stimulate and guide the student in the work of reflection, experiment, and discovery; at the same time there is added a well-selected list of references in English for further reading. The unity of the whole is maintained by rigid adherence to the adopted point of view, a thing on which the author now places more emphasis than on knowledge, and by frequent precise page references to exposition and discussion in earlier portions of the work when such references are needed to clarify discussion in the later. The student will find all this very helpful. The judicious teacher also should be able to use the book with profit, even if he disagrees with the author's point of view and thinks, as he well may, that function, development, and organization are too ruthlessly sacrificed to analysis and structure, or that the unconscious determinations of observable mental processes are not merely physiological, but psychophysical, or even, strictly speaking, purely psychical dispositions. The book, like the author's "Primer," which it replaces, is dedicated to the memory of Thomas Henry Huxley.

THEOLOGY AND RELIGION.

In response to the request from all parts of the world that what the "Dictionary of Christ and the Gospels" has done for the Gospels another similar publication should do for the rest of the New Testament, Dr. James Hastings, the indefatigable editor, has now prepared the "Dictionary of the Apostolic Church," in two volumes, the first of which has just been published by Scribners ($6 per volume; sold by subscription only). This new dictionary, together with that of "Christ and the Gospels," is designed to form, as the Preface states, "a complete and independent Dictionary of the New Testament." The contributors represent various denominations of Christians and various nationalities. An idea both of the general tendency of the editor and of the authors and subjects included may be gathered from the following list: Batiffol, on Ignatius; Burkitt, on the Apocalypse of Baruch; von Dobschütz, on Hellenism; Lake, on Luke and Acts; Moffatt, on the Uncanonical Gospels; Sanday, on Inspiration and Revelation; von Schlatter, on the Holy Spirit; Thumb, on Hellenistic Greek; and Vos, on Love and other Christian Virtues.

"Jerusalem to Rome" (Abingdon Press; $1.50 net), by Charles F. Sitterley, consists of a translation of the Book of Acts with a running commentary. The translation, which is based on Souter's edition of the Revisers' Greek text, is at times clearer than the original, and the commentary is mainly a paraphrase with a dash of imagination thrown in. The volume is designed not for scholars but for Sunday-school children.

"Foundations of Christian Belief" (Abingdon Press; $1.50 net) is the title of a series of popular studies in the philosophy of religion by F. L. Strickland, of the University of West Virginia. It is not an investigation into the historical foundations of Christian belief, but a defence of some essential Christian convictions such as the personality of God, the divinity of Christ, the uniqueness of the Bible, and the hope of immortality, convictions which the author seeks to bring into harmony with scientific concepts. The volume is addressed to "thoughtful men and women who love the Christian faith" and should prove serviceable to such of them as are of an open mind.

Students of the Greek New Testament have long felt the need of a handy dictionary in which a competent scholar should register compactly the results of recent investigations into the vocabulary of the New Testament in the light of papyri, inscriptions, ostraca, and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the like. This need is admirably met by Prof. Alexander Souter, of Aberdeen, in his "Pocket Lexicon to the Greek New Testament," which has just been published in attractive form by the Oxford University Press.

John W. Powell, in his latest volume, "What is a Christian?" (Macmillan; $1 net), discusses intelligently the ethics of Jesus and indicates the practical attitude a believer should take to such themes as war, wealth, and the church. In depicting Christianity, he puts relatively little stress on its redemptive nature wherein it differs from Judaism, emphasizing preferably the religious and ethical teaching of Jesus, in which the departure from the mother church is least notable. The author's soul is in what is called the "social gospel." He writes in short paragraphs, so that he who travels may read; and he is usually clear, though the uninstructed reader would follow with difficulty the logic of the argument (p. 64 sq.) which leads to the emphatic word "state-person."

The International Critical Commentary, planned many years ago, but still incomplete, has found acceptance among students who care for wise, reverent, and intelligent Biblical scholarship. The high standard reached by the contributors to the Old Testament volumes, for example by Moore, Toy, Smith, Driver, and Gray, is maintained in the New Testament by Prof. James Hardy Ropes, of Harvard University, in the most recent issue of the series, "The Epistle of St. James" (Scribner; $3 net). The introduction is devoted to the literary type of the epistle; to the literary relations, in which discussion no thraldom to the argument from literary dependence is evident; to the ideas and historical background of the epistle, which is a model of lucid exposition; to the text, the further detailed consideration of which is reserved for a forthcoming separate treatise; and to a special treatment of persons named James, which advances our knowledge of the question. It is argued convincingly that the epistle is a stray diatribe written between 75 and 125 A. D., and addressed to Greek-speaking Jews in Palestine, as the reference to the "early and later rain" suggests, perhaps in Cæsarea. The Christianity of James, it is made plain, is in the main Jewish, and is free from that admixture of mysticism distinctive of Paulinism; in fact, the author disapproves Paul's idea of justification by faith only, without a clear appreciation of its real significance. The commentary proper contains many novel interpretations, a few of which are mentioned by the editor in his Preface. The notes are always relevant, no space being wasted in an attempt to explain the obvious or the inexplicable. The volume is conspicuous for its thoroughness, historical insight, lucidity, and sound common-sense. There are larger works on James, but none better.

The only generally admitted result of the minute investigation into the literary relations of the Synoptic Gospels, which has been going on for over fifty years, is to the effect that Mark in some form or other is the main narrative source for Matthew and Luke. For it can scarcely be said that there is as yet any consensus of opinion as regards the origin of the material in Matthew and Luke which is not derived from Mark. To be sure, every recent investigator, from Harnack to Haupt, has his own theory of the elastic symbol Q, and Dr. Carl S. Patton, in his recent volume, "Sources of the Synoptic Gospels" (Macmillan; $1.30 net), is no exception to the rule. This volume, it should be said, is an intelligent examination, in the light of previous studies, of all the probable sources of the first three gospels, though it pays more attention to Mark and Q than to the material in Luke which is not assigned to these sources. Moreover, the discussion is so ordered that the gist of the argument may be readily grasped by those whose knowledge of Greek is scanty. Following along the lines mapped out by Wernle in his essay on the synoptic problem published in 1899, Dr. Patton elaborates a theory of two Aramaic recensions of Q which were translated into Greek and then used by Matthew and Luke respectively, the order of the original Aramaic Q being even now discernible in Luke. The bearing of this theory of Q upon the further contention that Mark used an earlier form of Q is not made plain, unless, indeed, the author intends the reader to assume that Q is to be regarded, not as a stable, but as a fluid, document from the start. It is a happy circumstance that this meritorious essay proceeds from the pen, not of a professor, but of a working pastor.

The experience of many teachers of the Bible has led them to desire for the use of pupils in the secondary schools and advanced Sunday-school classes textbooks following the methods of modern research. In the hope of meeting this demand the University of Chicago Press is issuing a series of volumes under the general title of Constructive Bible Studies, designed to represent what may be called liberal orthodoxy—that is, while maintaining the church views of inspiration, the volumes in question deal with historical details in the spirit of modern criticism. Among such works may be mentioned the following: "Studies in the First Book of Samuel" ($1.25), by Herbert Lockwood Willett; "The Life of Christ" ($1.25), adapted by Isaac Bronson Burgess from "The Life of Christ," by Ernest D. Burton and Shailer Mathews; "Studies in the Gospel According to Mark" ($1.25), by Ernest De Witt Burton; "A Short History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age" ($1.25), by George Holley Gilbert. These volumes are written in a simple and clear style and in such a manner as to indicate the methods of modern historical study.

A similarly broad construction of Biblical material is given by Prof. Walter M. Patton in "Israel's Account of the Beginnings Contained in Genesis I-II" (Boston: The Pilgrim Press; $1). Dr. Patton, while pointing out that these chapters have no authority as history, sets forth the fundamental doctrines of the Hebrew faith therein involved; and it is to be hoped that teachers of youth in Sunday schools will treat this material in similar fashion. The religious value of the Prophetic writings is well described by Georgia Louise Chamberlin in "The Hebrew Prophets, or Patriots and Leaders of Israel" (University of Chicago Press; $1.25). The extensive quotations from the Old Testament are explained in brief footnotes, with an appropriate introduction. Mention may also be made of the little volume, very clearly printed, "Ethical Readings from the Bible" (Scribner; 40 cents), by Harriet L. Keeler and Laura H. Wild. Excellent ethical suggestions will be found in Henry F. Cope's "Religious Education in the Family" (University of Chicago Press; $1.25). A similar commendation may be given to the small volume entitled "Lives Worth Living" (University of Chicago Press; $1), by Emily Clough Peabody. The material consists of sketches of the lives of a few notable women, some taken from the Bible and others from modern times. In regard to the Old Testament characters mentioned it will be well for teachers to point out that the Deborah of the Book of Judges is not therein credited with any good ethical trait; she is simply a patriotic leader, a sort of Joan of Arc, and she does not shrink from praising the treachery and the murderous hand of Jael, the wife of Heber, the Kenite. We may add, as an excellent book for teachers, "Morning Exercises for All the Year" (Chicago: Beckley-Cardy; 60 cents), by Joseph C. Sindelar—an interesting collection of paragraphs from many sources, historical and poetical, all of them conveying moral instruction. Favorable mention may be made also of "Moral Education, an Experimental Investigation" (Boston: Leroy Phillips), by William T. Whitney, a short but suggestive essay.

SCIENCE.

MATHEMATICS.

Prof. G. A. Miller's "Historical Introduction to Mathematical Literature" (Macmillan; $1.60) is a valuable contribution to the growing body of literature that aims at giving orientation in the general field of modern mathematics rather than mastery of a single branch of the science. Its 300 pages, though somewhat lacking in the stimulating qualities of style, present with laudable regard to perspective a large amount of information respecting mathematical literature in general, certain historical questions, and fundamental developments in arithmetic, geometry, and algebra. A specially noteworthy feature of the work is a chapter of over 50 pages giving an account of twenty-five of the most eminent mathematicians ranging in time from Euclid to Henri Poincaré.

Advanced students of mathematics will welcome the second edition of Whittaker and Watson's "Course of Modern Analysis" (Putnam; $4.50). Besides a revision of the matter in the well-known first edition, this second edition contains some additional chapters dealing with Riemann integration, the very modern subject of integral equations, and the Riemann Zeta-function.

In his "Theory of Errors and Least Squares" (Macmillan; $1.25) Professor Weld has admirably set forth within the compass of less than 200 pages the essentials of this highly important and much-neglected subject in such a way as to make the work serviceable at once as a textbook and as a reference book for the use of practitioners.

A very notable work and one for which students of statistics will be grateful is Arne Fisher's "The Mathematical Theory of Probabilities" (Macmillan; $2). It is notable as being the most comprehensive work of its kind in the English language and as based upon a sound metaphysical conception of the nature of probability.

Messrs. Richardson and Landis's "Fundamental Conceptions of Modern Mathematics" (Open Court; $1.25 net) is a fine specimen

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of a kind of book written in a fluent style by people making a great show of learning and pathetically unconscious of their ignorance of the matters treated by them. This particular book is well qualified to afford an hour's amusement to any genuine mathematician or logician who may chance to encounter it.

Among new elementary textbooks of mathematics the following may be mentioned as worthy additions to their numerous and rapidly increasing class: Davison's "A First Course in Geometry" (Putnam; $2.50), Stone and Millis's "Plane Geometry" (B. H. Sanborn; 85 cents), Wells and Hart's "Plane and Solid Geometry" (Heath; $1.30), Gifford's "Everyday Arithmetic" (Little, Brown; 35 cents), Milne's "Second Course in Algebra" (American Book Co.; 88 cents), Brookman's "A Practical Algebra for Beginners" (Scribner; $1), and Betz and Webb's "Solid Geometry" (Ginn; 75 cents).

Professor Townsend's "Functions of a Complex Variable" (Holt; $4), which begins at the beginning of its subject, may be characterized as an effective presentation of the more familiar parts of the classical theory of the complex variable. It is well adapted to the needs of the graduate student.

ELEMENTARY AND POPULAR.

That there is a widespread belief in the usefulness of elementary works on general science is shown by the number of books now at the service of teachers. Many houses now provide some sort of diminutive encyclopædia, which attempts to cover the whole field of science with clippings of physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology, botany, zoölogy, physiology, hygiene, and what not. One would expect that so miscellaneous a conglomeration would partake of the nature of a crazy patchwork, rather than of an orderly mosaic. But, strange to say, most of these little treatises are safe guides so far as they go. Probably all of the fragments have been submitted to correction by experts; hence the separate parts are not misleading. But in almost every instance these little comprehensive primers of general science have fallen into one common error, namely, of attempting to use too many illustrations. This has led to imperfect and inadequate description in innumerable cases, especially when the endeavor has been made to give a short description *at the figure itself*. For instance, in one of the newer books, there is the figure designed to represent the path of food and the path of air after entering the mouth; the puzzled expression on the faces of those to whom this figure has been shown with a request to explain it would convince the author that a more illuminating text cannot be out of place. Again, some of the illustrations have no place in these treatises; for example, in one of the books mentioned below, there is an engraving of a child afflicted with adenoids, throat-obstructions which prevent free breathing. The features are almost idiotic, and certainly very unpleasant; but there is no reason in the world why a picture which belongs in a treatise of laryngology should stare a poor helpless student of elementary science in the face day after day. On the whole, this class of books is likely to be of true service, provided the fragments of hashed science do not fill young pupils with a distaste for the full meal of science when they approach astronomy, zoölogy, and the like, later. In examining a shelf of these treatises, one asks oneself, what of the teacher? It is inconceivable that every teacher of pupils in secondary schools should be equally enamoured of physics and zoölogy, or of geology and hygiene, but he must try to maintain true proportions and keep up his interest in the entire field. Of course he will be aided more or less by the admirable laboratory guides based on the treatises; he must do his own work heartily; otherwise, even this A B C science will fall into merited disrepute. The most recent books at hand are "The First Year of Science," by John C. Hessler (Benjamin H. Sanborn; $1.45); "An Introduction to Science," by Bertha M. Clark (American Book Co.), and "A Laboratory Manual for General Science," by Otis W. Caldwell, W. L. Eikenberry, and Charles J. Pieper (Ginn; 50 cents). The last has provision for working out problems, but no illustrations.

"Side-Stepping Ill-Health," by Dr. Edwin F. Bowers (Little, Brown; $1.35 net), furnishes striking evidence of the strange results that may follow the application of the picturesque methods of journalism to the popularization of the sober facts of science. It is an ill-balanced jumble of truth and error which the well-informed reader may disentangle, if he thinks the effort worth while, but what the uninformed reader may make of it is a curious matter for speculation. The dear public seems to have a great appetite for the "miracles of science," and publishers apparently are nothing loath to furnish this pabulum *ad gustum* and even *ad nauseam*. It is a thousand pities that books written to enlighten the public in regard to the advances of science should proceed from any but authoritative sources. The reviews of science presented in our journals give for the most part a false picture of results and methods. Defects in knowledge or in the art of presentation are compensated by a resort to exaggeration in an effort to be interesting. Huxley and Tyndall were great popularizers of science—they could give their narratives thrilling interest without sacrificing scientific accuracy, but in our generation this function seems to have been passed over to the hands of careless or incompetent professionals.

CHEMISTRY.

Sixty-five years ago the Scotch chemist Thomas Graham first used the term "colloid" to designate gelatin-like substances which when brought into solution diffused with extreme slowness and passed very slightly or not at all through parchment membranes, behaving in these respects quite differently from crystalline substances, "crystalloids," which diffused at a measurable rate. While Graham considered the colloidal state to be a characteristic of certain substances, it is now recognized that all substances can appear as colloids under appropriate conditions. Colloidal solutions present the general appearance of true solutions, but may be shown to contain the colloid still in the solid state, though in extreme subdivision, and these solutions exhibit many differences in behavior from those characteristic of true solutions. "Colloid-chemistry is not the study of colloid materials, but that of the colloidal state of materials." The work of the past twenty-five years in this branch of chemistry has proved the very great importance of the subject. It appears that "nature has chosen the colloid form in which to show her face. Crystalloid behavior is the exception, colloid behavior the rule, in the cosmos." In colloid-chemistry is found the explanation of the properties of the jellies, pastes, and glues which the orthodox chemist has so often rejected. "Colloid-chemistry appeals to the agriculturist, the metallurgist, the dealer in precious stones, the tanner of skins, the manufacturer of wood pulps and paper, the dyer, the histologist, the steel-worker, the weaver of textiles, the smelter, the manufacturer of paints. . . . Living matter, whether of plants or animals, and under normal or pathological conditions, is chemistry in a colloid matrix; whence colloid-chemistry comes to concern every botanist and zoölogist, the physiologist, the pathologist, and the practical man in medicine and surgery. "A Handbook of Colloid-Chemistry" (Blakiston; $3), by Dr. Wolfgang Ostwald, first English edition translated from the third German edition by Dr. Martin H. Fischer, deals with the recognition of colloids, the theory of colloids, and their general physico-chemical properties. The work first appeared in 1910, and is known throughout the world as the authoritative text on the subject. Dr. Fischer has performed a great service in making it more accessible to the English-speaking chemists through this excellent translation.

A fourth impression of "Experimental General Chemistry," by James H. Ransom (McGraw-Hill Book Company; $1 net), which was first published in 1909, shows that this laboratory manual has some enduring qualities. It is a well-printed little book, containing directions for eighty-six numbered experiments, chiefly on the non-metals and their compounds. Seven quantitative experiments are included in this number. The experiments appear to have been carefully chosen, and the directions are given clearly and concisely, though some of the phrases employed are open to criticism. For example (the italics are ours): The stopper of a bottle "should be held between the first and second fingers of the hand (*the main part pointing back*)." A glass tube is put through a stopper "*by a backward and forward screwing motion.*" "Notice if the pointer [of a balance] *makes the same sized angle with the perpendicular.*" Carbon disulphide "*should be brought near a flame only with the greatest care.*" The pupil is directed to "*secure*" a small bottle, a piece of phosphorus, etc., for his experiments. On page 5, "nonmentals" has escaped the proofreader. Careless and inaccurate use of language does not necessarily imply chemical or manipulative inaccuracy; but such examples tend to confirm the natural tendency of the pupil to slovenly usage.

"Physical Chemistry for Schools" (Putnam; 90 cents), by Henry John Horstman Fenton, is a little book of about two hundred pages, "intended to serve as a brief introductory outline of physical chemistry for the use of students who have been through the elementary courses of descriptive chemistry and physics." The subject-matter is clearly presented in the form of concise, direct statements; detailed explanations, historical introductions, and mathematical formulæ being almost entirely omitted. Some important problems and theories, which the author considers as "perhaps beyond the capabilities of elementary students," are briefly sketched in smaller type, so that they can be used at the discretion of the teacher. Such topics include: deviations from the gas laws, the kinetic theory of gases, dis-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

perse systems, and some other discussions. From this description of the contents, it is evident that the treatment is of a very elementary character and is inadequate for an independent course, as chemistry is usually taught in this country. The conditions are manifestly different in England. The book may, however, be found useful in supplementing the theoretical discussions of the first chemistry course in our colleges.

In "Volumetric Analysis" (Putnam; $1.65), by A. J. Berry, a book of 137 pages, the subject of volumetric analysis is treated from the theoretical as well as from the practical point of view, and in a commendably thorough and succinct manner. Particular care has evidently been taken in the introductory chapter to make the conception of equivalent weights and of normal solutions as clear as possible, and the student is encouraged to calculate his results from the actual chemical changes, rather than by the use of factors. The inclusion of a chapter on the theory of indicators should still further increase the interest of the student in the theoretical aspect of his work. Discussions of the chemistry of the reactions is blended with the directions for carrying out the various determinations, and the whole book emphasizes the educative value of volumetric analysis in a general chemical course, so that the student who studies this text in connection with his laboratory work will find that he has gained much more than a practical knowledge of the chief methods of this branch of chemical analysis. The first determinations are a number of direct and indirect analyses by the use of standard potassium permanganate; then follow the use of standard solutions of potassium dichromate, iodine, sodium thiosulphate, silver nitrate, and ammonium thiocyanate; acidimetry and alkalimetry are then taken up, and, after the chapter on indicators, some unclassified determinations and some special applications and examples of volumetric analyses.

"Chemistry in the Home," by Henry S. Weed (American Book Company; $1.70), is designed for use in high schools, and, according to the preface, "aims to train students in scientific thinking, and to give them a fund of information concerning the chemistry of everyday things, related to industries and the home." The latter part of this purpose is carried out. The frontispiece is a crudely colored picture of a dye-house scene, and one finds the greater part of the book filled with varied information. There are chapters on photography, textiles, dyes, baking powders, oils, fats, and soap, and sixty-eight pages devoted to foods, eighteen of which are occupied by tables of food values to aid the pupil "to plan a balanced dietary that will give you the proper amount of protein and Calories enough to maintain your body at its highest efficiency." In chapters on combustion and heat, the pupil is instructed in the regulation of coal fires, two pages are given to directions for "reading your gas meter," while the gas-heated flatiron, fireless cookers, and the manufacture of artificial ice are among the illustrated topics. As a fact-book, this would please Mr. Gradgrind. As an introduction to chemistry, its value is extremely slight. Statements are made of the laws of definite and multiple proportions; there is a brief chapter on the atomic theory, and another on formulas, equations, and valence. Short descriptions of the preparation and properties of hydrogen, oxygen, and chlorine are given; a few pages are allowed to the metals and their compounds; and other substances usually considered of importance, even in elementary chemistries, are relegated to a final chapter on "Some Common Chemicals," where one finds some information about phosphorus, sulphur, and sulphuric acid, nitric acid, and nitrates, together with paragraphs on thermite, matches, milk, butter, cream, and leather. There is nothing in this book which will "train students in scientific thinking." It may inform, but will not educate; and our high schools are throwing away golden opportunities if they substitute such texts as this for those which offer real instruction in elementary science.

PHYSICS.

Dr. R. A. Houstoun, of Glasgow, is the author of a "Treatise on Light" (Longmans, Green; $2.25 net). With this book the subject of light is better filled out than any other branch of physics. There are several satisfactory texts for elementary college classes, and we have the excellent treatises of R. W. Wood and of Drude for advanced students. Dr. Houstoun's book fits into this gap exactly. We seldom have a chance to recommend a textbook so unreservedly. It is thorough, well proportioned, and readable.

The same firm is issuing an "Introduction to Magnetism and Electricity" (90 cents), by Mr. E. W. E. Kempson, physics master in Rugby School. The text is a commendable one, but owing to our different system of education, it is probably too advanced for our preparatory schools and not sufficiently comprehensive for our colleges. It is odd that this firm of publishers is willing to produce books with such flimsy bindings.

When the "Elementary Lessons in Electricity and Magnetism" (Macmillan; $1.50), by Prof. Sylvanus Thompson, was first issued in 1881, it was at once accepted as a standard text. Due to frequent revision it has held its place ever since. The present, and seventh, edition has again been rewritten and brought up to date.

Mr. H. A. Rankin, the well-known author of a series of "Art" Manuals, has prepared a really excellent manual on the "Teaching of Colour" (London: I. Pitman & Sons, Ltd.). The text is clear and simple, and is properly subordinated to the illustrations. The author modestly confesses in his preface that, if one merely reads the text, one will not learn much about color contrasts. This is an underestimate, and if the reader also studies the many examples which are given, and if he tries to reproduce them and then goes on to examples of his own contriving, he is certain to awaken his probably dormant appreciation of color. There is no need to emphasize the lack of taste for color contrast in the majority of people. The illustrations are excellently reproduced by the publishers.

A new "Analytical Mechanics," by Profs. John Anthony Miller and Scott Lilly, of Swarthmore College, is published by Heath & Co. ($2). It takes rather brave men to add to the long list of textbooks on mechanics. The present one is undoubtedly good enough, but it is difficult to see in what it differs from or how it is better than others.

The search for the absolute seems to be an ineradicable quality of the mind. The philosopher and the man of science may show as conclusively as may be that all of our knowledge is relative, but still books will continue to crop up in which the same old problem is again confidently attacked. This time the author is Mr. Eugene Miller, of Topeka, Kan., and his book is "The Secret of the Universe." It would be easy to dismiss the attempt by pointing out that as Mr. Miller apparently unlocks the secret of the absolute by what he calls the LAW OF ANALOGY, he, of necessity, cannot find the absolute with such a key. Also the author's assumption that the ultimate corpuscle is mind and not matter is futile, as the question has been debated without results in all its phases. But something more is due these patient solvers of cosmic riddles, and that is to beg Mr. Miller to drop the burden and to occupy himself with more humble problems which have a solution.

A number of textbooks on physics and engineering have been received from the University of Cambridge Press (American representatives, G. P. Putnam's Sons):

The "Introduction to Applied Mechanics" ($1.10), by Ewart S. Andrews, is a satisfactory text for students who have had a good preliminary training in mechanics. The problems are well selected and explained clearly; the chapter on stresses and strains is particularly good. The query of the author, why most students find applied mechanics difficult, is really to be answered in only one way: it is because of the nature of things. And in spite of the author's desire to make the subject easy, the illusion will persist.

A textbook on "Electrical Engineering," Volume I ($1.25), by Dr. T. C. Baillie, is disappointing. For the most part it consists of photographs of electrical measuring instruments and descriptions of their contents. The discussion seems to be inadequate to give either a theoretical or a practical knowledge of the subject.

The subject of harmonic motion is so important in physics and, at the same time, is such a stumbling block to students, that the experiments collected by Dr. G. F. C. Searle for use in the Cavendish Laboratory, and now published under the title of "Experimental Harmonic Motion" ($1.10), will be found to be very acceptable. Theory and observations are well balanced, and great care has been taken to show how accuracy can be obtained.

Prof. H. A. Wilson, of Rice Institute, has written a textbook on "Experimental Physics" ($2.50). The topics are limited to mechanics, heat, sound, and light. The author intends the book to be used in connection with a course of lectures on experimental physics. He adopts the plan of treating only topics of fundamental importance. But as almost all differ as to what are the fundamental things, it will be necessary for those who use this text to fashion their lectures to suit the book. Those who agree with Professor Wilson will find the book to be a good one.

Dr. Harry Bateman's monograph on the "Mathematical Analysis of Electrical and Optical Wave-Motion" ($1.90) is a most welcome contribution to the subject. The modern theories of electricity and optics, while they are based on Maxwell's work, have departed so far from the simple stress theory that it is necessary to have the connection clearly de-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

veloped. This is especially true since so many physicists have now adopted the new vector analysis. Besides the subject-matter, the author has done good service by giving an index, references to original papers, and well-chosen examples.

BOTANY.

One of the most successful of the handy treatises on the principles which underlie the raising of plants is "The Principles of Plant Culture," by the late E. S. Goff, revised by J. G. Moore and L. R. Jones (Macmillan; $1.25). This little volume has now been approved by about twenty years of use, and it has deserved the care given to it in successive revisions. The present is the eighth edition. Its practical character commends it to all teachers who care more for the kernel than for the shell. It goes straight ahead from start to finish, without any unnecessary excursions into the neighboring fields, and yet it maintains its attractiveness throughout. It is a treatise which can be used to advantage by any serious amateur, as well as by the student who has the guidance of a teacher.

GEOLOGY.

By reason of its excellent workmanship, Prof. H. F. Cleland's book, "Geology, Physical and Historical" (American Book Co.; $3.50), is well adapted to the needs of the general reader, but, like all other introductions to geology so far published, it seems not to be ideal as a supplement to a thorough course of lectures, with or without laboratory work. Much of the text is occupied with comparatively simple topics which are inevitably discussed in a good course of lectures. In order that the book shall have reasonable size, the no less essential, but much more difficult subjects, which need long, careful consideration in the study rather than in the lecture room, necessarily receive rather scant treatment. For example, the matter relating to weathering, to the work of the wind and of glaciers, earthquakes, etc., could be condensed, giving space for a more adequate presentation of oceanic phenomena, the structures of the earth's crust, the structure of the planet as a whole, the classification of rocks, metamorphism, the origin of mountains, the economic side of the subject, and other fundamental matters. In other words, the textbook should be somewhat more advanced than the lectures. Professor Cleland's style is clear, and he has certainly succeeded in turning out a readable and useful work. If he had adopted a plan like the one outlined, his product, written with the tact and skill here evidenced, would have specially challenged the attention of all teachers of geology, and he would not have come so near to duplicating several other sound textbooks of recent publication.

A few debatable points may be noted. It is a pity that "base level" is described (p. 86) as a "condition" of a river; logic and practical usage demand that this valuable expression shall mean the level at the base of the land mass subject to a river's erosion. The drowning of the river valleys, to form Delaware and Chesapeake Bays, is definitely attributed (p. 114) to sinking of the land; it is at least as probable that the drowning has been due to a recent rise of general sea level. Without proper guarding, the statement that "warm [ocean] waters are more favorable to organisms than cold" (p. 197) is misleading. Equatorial waters seldom show the astounding density of life visible in the seas of high latitudes. It is incorrect to say that "every part of the ocean experiences two high tides and two low tides each day" (p. 201); several areas, *e. g.*, that off part of the east coast of South America, have but one tidal oscillation per lunar day. In view of their vast importance as distributing agents, the ocean currents should have more than five lines of fine print (p. 202). Precious space could have been saved by omitting the outline of Barrell's difficult hypothesis of recent bevelling of New England by sea-waves. Faults are classed as normal, reverse or thrust, and vertical (p. 261). Since a normal or reverse fault may be vertical, this classification is obviously illogical. The thermal conductivity of deep-seated rocks may be increased by the pressure of the overlying load, but it is notably decreased by increase of temperature. Hence one cannot hold, as stated on page 273, that, because of the principle of the increase of conductivity with increase of pressure, the fusion temperature of rocks is to be located at a depth much greater than thirty miles. The common error of confusing rigidity with solidity (crystallinity) is responsible for an express abandonment of the internal-fluidity theory of the earth (p. 273). Compelling experiments by Bridgman and others have shown that enormous rigidity is imparted to such a substance as molten rock by the application of moderate pressures. Hence, though the earth is more rigid than steel, its interior may be largely molten, that is, not yet crystallized. On page 387 we find the "nebular and planetesimal theories contrasted." A cloud of planetesimals condensing into a sun or planet is as truly a nebula as a cosmical cloud of true gas. The antithesis here intended is that between a gas-nebula and a planetesimal-nebula. In spite of their present vogue, the terms "Archæozoic" and "Proterozoic" (p. 393), as applied to world formations, are absolutely undefinable and should not be preferred to the corresponding "Earlier Pre-Cambrian" and "Later Pre-Cambrian," the only unimpeachable names yet proposed to designate, on a world-scale, the most ancient formations. Walcott's oldest known fossil, "Atikokania," is described as a genuine relic of life (p. 397), though it is probably a concretion, like those in the Permian limestone of England, and therefore of inorganic origin.

Some minor corrections are needed in the next edition: "Auckland" for "Aukland"; "Krakatoa" for "Krakatao"; "Pele's hair" for "Pelée's hair." The year of publication is not given; the American Book Company may well revise its practice in this regard, for bibliographers, librarians, and scientific investigators are often exasperated by this failure to attend to an elementary, ethical duty of the publisher. The presswork and binding are fairly satisfactory, but a decided defect is a general lack of scales for the figures, indicating the absolute sizes of objects and areas represented. In the cross-sections the vertical element is generally exaggerated, but no information is given as to the degree of distortion. The book is quite orthodox in neglecting this quantitative side of the illustrations; yet how serious in a scientific work chiefly intended for mental discipline! Finally, notes of possible improvements should not obscure the truth that Professor Cleland is to be congratulated on the result of his work. More strikingly than some other writers of textbooks of recent dates, he shows an open mind, capable of due sympathy for new ideas in the science, and his book has distinctly benefited from that excellent trait of its author.

BIOLOGY.

Students of insect embryology will find an excellent treatment of insect germ layers and organogeny, exclusive of metamorphosis, in Dr. James Allen Nelson's "Embryology of the Honey Bee" (Princeton University Press; $2 net). Each detail of structure is traced from the beginning in the egg, and each forms the basis for a generally admirable critical review of a very extensive literature.

The third edition of Shipley and Macbride's "Zoölogy" (Putnam; $3.25) is an improvement over the already excellent second edition published eleven years ago. Many parts are rewritten, and the point of view in relation to some questions is considerably changed, notably in the use of the term nephridium, and unfortunately in the peculiar limited use of the term cell. The method of introducing a group according to type is extended, and structures are described with a view always to the functions they perform.

The first section of the first edition of Dr. W. L. H. Duckworth's "Morphology and Anthropology" has been entirely rewritten and includes more than eighty new illustrations and so much new material that the author deemed it advantageous to issue it as a separate volume (Putnam; $3). As indicated in the title, the morphological aspects of anthropology are alone considered, the method of comparative anatomy being followed throughout. The morphological studies are directed towards a realization of the position occupied by Man in the animal series, and towards the ancestry of Man, with a general acceptance of the views on mammalian ancestry expressed in publications from the American Museum of Natural History.

"Teaching to think is not a sinecure for the teacher." This statement by George William Hunter in "Laboratory Problems in Civic Biology" (American Book Co.; 80 cents) expresses what should be the aim and what actually is the despair of most modern teachers. Many instructors feel that their duties are well accomplished if they do the thinking themselves and deliver the results of such thought to their students in logical well-worded lectures. Such teachers are popular, and their courses are well attended; the auditors carry away many facts which have interested them, and some of these will be remembered. But too often the teacher fails to impress his students with the full value of a fact; he does not teach them to weigh evidence nor even to distinguish between positive and negative data in drawing conclusions; in short, he fails to teach them to think straight. In no branch of teaching is this danger more apparent than in Biology, where inference and analogy are often the simplest means to a conclusion. In this valuable little book Mr. Hunter has brought together 249 practical problems with directions and suggestive questions which any intelligent person can work out with a minimum equipment. The required experiment, observation, recording of results and deductions in each problem make it a most commendable laboratory manual to supplement any standard textbook on Biology.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Prof. John M. Coulter's "Evolution, Heredity, and Eugenics," in the School of Science series (Bloomington, Ill.: John G. Coulter; 50 cents) is a good example of the didactic method of presenting biological subjects. The part dealing with the historical and explanatory statements of principles and methods is skilfully accomplished, but the more formal part of tracing the evolution of groups of animals and plants is less satisfactory. In the former the advantages of facts derived from experiment and observation are clearly stated to be of far greater value than inference and speculation, but in the latter such inferences and speculations are gravely made the basis of phylogeny from algæ to vascular plants and from Protozoa to Man. Here biologists differ in regard to relationships, and the value of inference, and many of the categorical statements made in the book will not pass unchallenged. Few specialists would accept the statement, for example, that fertilization in Protozoa "is the exception rather than the rule," or in connection with the origin of the phylum of vertebrates: "The usually accepted theory is that it arose from that group (often classed with the crustaceans) to which the modern horseshoe-crab or Limulus belongs." Apart from these general objections which apply equally to any similar attempt to compress a vast subject into a limited volume the average reader will find here a lucid and interesting presentation of the complex field of organic evolution.

The study of evolution in the past generation was based mainly on morphology and comparative anatomy, embryology, and distribution of organisms, and one chief object was to establish genetic relationships on a basis of homology, sufficient to justify a comprehensive phylogenetic tree. Underlying such studies were the fundamental but theoretical principles of evolution, especially those in connection with the factors involved or the manner in which evolution is accomplished. With the work of De Vries, Correns, Czermak, and Bateson a new experimental method in the study of evolution was developed. The method of determining the exact conditions under which varieties and species are actually produced from an ancestral type has replaced, to a great extent, the former method of homologies and inferences. The new method, however, has grown into a most complicated and specialized science of genetics with terms and formulæ bewildering to the general biologist and quite incomprehensible to the general reader.

In his "Modes of Research in Genetics" (Macmillan; $1.25) Prof. Raymond Pearl gives the substance of a number of his recent papers and addresses, which illumines many of these darker places in the new science. The methods of research are briefly and clearly outlined, biometrics receiving the most attention. One chapter, however, on inbreeding is so technical that a higher candlepower might well have been used to light it. The volume satisfies an increasing demand for a clear analysis of the limitations, as well as the possibilities, of the various methods used by modern students of genetics, and the author draws upon his long experience in biometry and in biology to do this most acceptably.

Thoughtful parents realize the necessity of teaching their children the essential facts of sex and reproduction without inciting undue curiosity on the one side or undue fear and sex-consciousness on the other. Prof. T. W. Galloway's little book on Reproduction in the School Science series (Bloomington, Ill.: John G. Coulter; 60 cents) develops one, and a very excellent, method of approaching the subject. The main features of human reproduction, without suggestive details of any description, are enveloped in the generous cloak of animal and plant processes. Reproduction by division, by spore-formation, by budding, and by gametes is described in simple terms and in progressive development up to the complex conditions in human society. Self-control, chivalry, and sacrificial care of young are shown to be the higher products of human activity in dominating over the primitive animal sex-instincts. The subject is presented so tactfully and judicially that the book may safely be recommended to young people.

GEOGRAPHY.

In view of the keen interest now being manifested by the United States in Pan-American affairs, the appearance of Isaiah Bowman's "South America, a Geography Reader" (Rand, McNally; 75 cents), is most timely. Not only is the author a well-recognized authority on South American geography, but he is able also to tell his story in a most interesting and pictorial manner. Consequently, the book before us is both a noteworthy contribution to the rapidly increasing literature within the field of geography and a valuable addition to the publisher's Land and Peoples series, of which this is the second volume to appear. (The first, it will be recalled, was written by Ellsworth Huntington and is entitled "Asia, a Geography Reader.") There are upwards of three hundred and fifty pages of text interspersed liberally with illustrations, most of which were collected by the author during his various expeditions to Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and the Argentine. In addition, there are twelve colored and ten text maps. The volume was designed for the use of elementary students, yet there is much to interest and inform the more mature. It is written from the modern point of view of geography as being a study of the earth in its relation to man and life, with emphasis upon man himself in his various life activities. Inasmuch as the literature on South American geography is scanty, and a large proportion of that which does exist is written in Spanish, Portuguese, German, or French, much time may now be saved to teachers in presenting to their pupils a study of South America based upon this first-hand and trustworthy treatise on the southern continent. There is a well-written introduction by Prof. Richard E. Dodge, under whose general editorship the series is being prepared.

The late Prof. Edward Van Dyke Robinson's "Commercial Geography" (Rand, McNally; $1.25), published originally in 1910 and reviewed in these columns (Vol. 92, No. 2397), now appears in a new and revised edition, completed in the summer of 1915 ($1.25). Rapid changes in industrial and commercial methods of the present day necessitate the frequent revisions of works in applied geography, which, like the volume before us, are somewhat statistical in their content. The author has made such changes in the text as were necessary to bring the book thoroughly up-to-date, and various emendations have been incorporated in the maps and diagrams. An important feature of the work of special value to the teacher is the separately bound pamphlet, entitled "Exercises and References to Accompany Commercial Geography," prepared by the author himself. It contains numerous problems based upon the text and the tables in the appendix thereto; and there are various supplementary topics suggested. At the close of the pamphlet there may be found an excellent classified bibliography, covering practically all aspects of commercial geography, and containing references to all the important countries.

"Practical Exercises in Geography," Book One, "Our Own Country and Her Possessions," by William J. Sutherland and Chester M. Sanford (Silver, Burdett; 60 cents), is the first of two volumes written for the upper elementary grades. The companion volume (book two) is devoted to South America and Eurasia. The authors have tried to organize the subject matter of geography in order that more gratifying results may be attained. The "Exercises" are not intended to be used as a substitute for a textbook, but, in the opinion of the authors, they may be used with practically any text. It will be interesting to learn, in the light of actual experience, to what extent this opinion will be found to be correct. The problems and exercises are based upon the physiographic regions of the United States; and the fourteen chapters are devoted respectively to the New England plateaus, the Atlantic and Gulf coastal plains, the Appalachian region, the Lake and Prairie plains, the Ozark region, the Great Plains, the Rocky Mountains, the Columbia and Colorado plateaus, the Basin region, the Pacific slope, and our American possessions. The study period is the time during which the particular problem or exercise should be worked out, the recitation period being assigned for examining and elaborating that which the pupil has prepared. On the whole, the manual should prove of great assistance in the teaching of geography in that it organizes the scattered material relating to the geography of the United States, so that the lesson may be made both interesting and full of meaning. Moreover, the preparation of the problems by the pupils themselves will reduce the amount of purely memorizing work, and afford an excellent opportunity for the development of individual initiative.

A new textbook of "Physical Geography," by Philip Lake, lecturer at Cambridge University (Putnam; $1.90), is one of those which will inform rather than educate its students. It presents them with a number of conclusions, but it gives them little capacity to reach conclusions for themselves. It is in particular deficient in the treatment of land forms, for features as important as mountains and plateaus are hardly mentioned; and in general the student's capacity to understand and describe ordinary landscapes is not developed. The atmosphere is more fully treated, but the discussion of pressure and winds before temperature gives this section an empirical quality that is undesirable. A number of half-tone plates help the book, but their relation to the text is not sufficiently emphasized. Many of the diagrams make an over-use of solid black, from which they merit the nickname of "mourning figures": the value of graphic aid thus given to verbal text is small.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED